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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

**American Association
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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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VOLUME XXXII

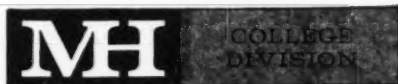
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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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Learning Patterns of Junior College Students

WALTER NARDELLI

WHAT IS a junior college? First of all, a junior college is not two more years of high school; it is not the first two years of college. It is an entity by itself; it has its own particular purpose and function in American education. It is neither wholly related to secondary education nor to higher education. Yet elements of both the secondary and the college level are present in the junior college. The guidance and counseling patterns of the secondary schools and the subject matter of the college are inherent in the junior college. The real difference lies in determining patterns for students of diverse interests and various degrees of maturity—mental, physical, and emotional.

Attending a junior college comprises a period of catharsis for students who need a re-evaluation of their perspective and preparation for living and working. The learning patterns of the junior college must conform to the needs and demands of the nature of the student seeking this education.

The public school system requires the student entering the 9th or 10th grade to choose the curriculum he will pursue for

the high school period when he is 14 or 15 years of age. The assumption is that at that age he is mentally, physically, and emotionally capable of ascertaining his life's objective in a few hours before a trained counselor. If the choice is made by the counselor or by the parents or both, then the student is fulfilling interests that may become foreign to him as he continues his high school education. The interests that originally seemed tangible at the 9th and 10th grades change with the maturity of the student in his mental, physical, and emotional growth. The motivation that pricks the growth of one phase of his personality probably will not arouse the latent potentiality of other phases of his make-up.

How concurrent are the growth of the student's mental, physical, and emotional facets of personality? The public school tends to crystallize the educational program of the student entering high school. Deviations from the set educational pattern anticipated by counselors, parents, principals, and teachers at grades 10 and/or 11 are not usually studied in light of the changing maturity growth of the student but in the material requisites demanded of the high school curriculum or of college preparatory requirements. If a student falls by the wayside because of difficulty in attaining the standards set

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in a college course, then he must be saved for graduation purposes by being transferred to another curriculum. The change of curriculum is expedient at the time. The analysis of the individual's patterns of behavior is often beyond the academic education and training of a layman like the counselor or principal. A time-growth pattern exists for each individual for the maturing of his mental capabilities and potentialities, his emotional expressions, and his physical stamina. These three maturities are rarely concurrent in growth in any student—particularly of one just entering the high school.

The frustrations, the moroseness, the irascibility of many students of high school age reveal in some cases latent, turbulent forces that cannot be diagnosed and understood in the traditional high school pattern of education. These problems will become accentuated since American society continues to emphasize the "white collar" philosophy of work and to reveal an increasing disdain for manual (technical, mechanical, trade) labor.

Therefore, these disturbing undercurrents in a student's personality must find expression, understanding, and control. The junior college is now supplying this catharsis in trying to assimilate the diverse interests and personalities of students seeking a "college education." Life in a junior college is a period of development for a student. The barriers of inhibitions that seem present in a junior college student body may simply emerge overtly as deficiencies in terms of tools of English or mathematics, but these deficiencies in many cases are common to both the 90 IQ and the 155 IQ student.

The junior college uses subject matter to help a student realize his own defi-

ciencies and make him take corrective measures with the aid of an instructor without losing face before his classmates because of his age, fumbling use of English, naive approach to accounting or mathematical problems, physical maturity, or childish emotional stability.

The first quarter of a semester at a junior college is the most difficult adjustment period for a student and the most challenging period for an instructor. The student body usually reflects a cross-section of all curriculums in a high school—from college preparatory to industrial arts. The student group must be measured in terms of reading level, mathematical level, social intelligence, and general intelligence—if secondary school records are incomplete or inadequate. The instructor must develop and accept a philosophy that places the student first, the instructor second, and subject matter third. The instructor's main function in a junior college is to help the student find a solution to his problems of adjustment. The tools of the instructor for this therapeutic work are interpreted in terms of subject matter, motivation of students, interest of parents, and genuine understanding and concern of all college faculty and staff.

Many of the learning patterns of junior college students are evaluated in terms of overt behavior idiosyncracies. In these patterns lie the answers for helping students to find their true strength. What are some of these patterns?

There is a tendency among many students of junior colleges to criticize—faculty, books, homework assignments, parking facilities, administration. Why? Actually, when a student criticizes, he is looking for a reason to substantiate something that is acting within him as a pulling

force. If he criticizes an instructor, it might not be criticism of that particular individual but of what instructors generally have meant to him in his associations. Criticism of an instructor who has an approach logical in terms of material, who has a keen mind for analysis of problems, who has a good command of the English language, who has an affable personality may be made by a student who lacks these qualities or tried to obtain them.

Criticism of noise in classrooms is a common complaint because often it reveals the student mind that is seeking evidence to support the reason he cannot study, receive good marks, or understand certain subject.

Criticism of a textbook by a student might reveal to an instructor that here again the complaint is relative to the student's attitude. His real objection may be to the cost or size of the book, or there may be an association in his mind between the course and an emotional problem.

Many of these pressures that have been repressed by students in large high schools or in high schools with large classes will emerge easily because of the informality and friendly atmosphere of most junior colleges. A closeness of organization, homogeneity of academic standards, cooperation between administration and faculty, continuity in the extracurricular and curricular activities act as catalysts in influencing students to be in contact with many personalities, organizations, types of language expressions, and social standards—all of which hasten his period of adjustment.

Many of the barriers of inhibition that students exhibit to the faculty are recognizable. An instructor's position is to use

the barriers as a wedge to open the true personality and potentiality of the individual student.

How much abstract thinking, how much concrete thinking takes place in an individual? Does abstract thinking require a higher degree of intelligence? Is concrete thinking associated with the practical only? Many junior colleges teach the concrete. Why? Is it because the utilitarian is the easiest method of teaching? Junior college students say, "Give me the practical. I can use it." What they are saying is that many schools indulge in the practical courses because a true philosophy of education for the junior college has not been developed. Abstract thinking, with its concomitant, fertile imagination, is not common to all people. The degree of achievement a student attains in relating material learned to a new situation depends on his innate intelligence and experience.

An instructor should not believe that the lecture is the only method of instruction. Often he may assume that a student can understand his ideas, can express them in writing in note form, and can visualize application of ideas to new situations. The ability to think abstractly comes from study, experience, knowledge, and application and is not necessarily the product of a highly intelligent mind alone.

Another behavior pattern common to junior college students is their adherence to sophism. Instead of evaluating life in terms of man's achievement over a period of 5,000 years, they have a tendency to evaluate some particular subject, some particular occasion only in terms of their 18 or 19 years of life experience. This form of sophism means that everything is judged in terms of the student's self,

rather than in terms of certain standards accepted by man as norms. Subjectivity is the essence of sophism. Sophism flourishes in egocentricity; it plays on words and destroys leadership images. Many junior college students abhor situations that would tax leadership qualities. Leadership implies work, responsibility, and liability. Some students would like to be in charge of college functions but do not wish to assume the responsibility and work of such situations; they prefer the certain, the common, and the average. It's easier. In many cases they do not have the urge for true scholastic work, the true meaning of scholasticism *per se*. Generally, they will do only the least required of them for survival in their immediate social and academic circles.

These are some of the patterns of human behavior that influence the philoso-

phy of education for the junior college. As the junior college matures, more challenges will face the faculty, staff, and administration because this type of institution is dynamic, experimental and unorthodox.

The junior college will not be effective without a candid appraisal of its purpose for being. In many states the junior college has not been clearly defined. Many persons confuse it with a degree-granting institution. Few see it as the people's college—vocational in direction, avocational in interest, and soul-saving in essence. The learning patterns of junior college students are so different from those of the regular four-year college students that a deeper analysis and study are needed to place the college in its proper perspective in American education.

Leadership for the Average Capable Learner

RICHARD E. STOCKWELL AND MARVIN J. FELDMAN

NUMEROUS TEACHERS—and one is inclined to say too many teachers—in junior and senior high schools indicate an awareness of the frustrating problems involving the “average learner.” It is stated often that numerous students do not work up to their capacity and, thereby, fail to realize their occupational potentialities before graduation from high school. Faculty from public junior colleges and private technical institutes state that great numbers of students classified as average in high school appear somewhat aimless in the selection and vigor of their collegiate level programs.

Contrary to this meandering current in the broad stream of education is the definite need for competent personnel to work in business and industry. Consider the following statements: Employment in professional, technical and related occupations in the United States has increased each decade since 1870 from less than a half million to about seven million in 90 years. A great majority of unemployed stay unemployed due, basically, to lack of skills. It is anticipated that 800,000 additional technicians, capable of working with engineers and scientists, will be needed by 1975. Rapid progress in engineering development of automatic control

systems makes it inevitable that a new field, “automation,” has affected many areas of human endeavor not directly related to engineering: the accountant, the stockkeeper, the estimator, and even the draftsman. To these are added thousands of workers in manufacturing plants from electronic to textile production.

If these statements seem extravagant, one need only to visit the Ford Engine Plant in Cleveland, visit the Clevite Plant near San Francisco or go through Durkee's Soybean Refinery in New Jersey. One, then, can extrapolate over the next dozen years what exists now and ponder the significance of projected, increased need for technical personnel. The great bulk of these technical people require technical education beyond high school but not necessarily four years of college, leading to a baccalaureate degree.

Here are employment opportunities! Progress, economic and cultural, can be realized if young people can be educated to become substantial, self-supporting citizens. That is to say, people rarely progress in an aura of poverty.

A gate must be opened for these young people—to a third pathway in junior and senior high school—preparation for college-level technical curriculums. At present the general pattern of education in junior high schools divides into two pathways of “who should learn what.” One group completes programs aimed at “preparation for college,” that is, the traditional, four-year baccalaureate degree education. The other group participates

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in a program aimed at assisting them in adjusting to life and exploration of fields in which they might find employment on graduation from senior high schools. This second, the larger of the two groups, encompasses many high school students often identified as average and aimless.

It takes courage to face away from tradition and say, "Yes, there is a place in college-level education for the 'average, capable learner'." The gifted belong in the universities. On the other hand, the average young man, the average, *capable* learner, can profit tremendously from engineering technology and other college-level technical curriculums offered in public junior colleges, private technical institutes and technology divisions of certain college systems.

The kind of young people referred to above can be divided into three groups: The first group consists of youngsters who have had ambitions for careers in science or engineering but who, by the end of their 10th or 11th year in school, find themselves not maintaining the pace in a program devised for university preparatory students. Without a program of orientation and readjustment of substitute goals which are tangible and realistic, they often give up their science and mathematics altogether and follow the course of least resistance for the rest of their careers. Some of them get a new start at the junior college level but spend a good deal of time making up for what they should have done in high school. Most of them, however, never find themselves in a technological society which is demanding ever greater background and training to fill the many high skilled positions available.

Another such group consists of boys

who, because of environmental influences, have never seriously considered educational goals beyond high school. Some of these boys have a high degree of mechanical and mathematical aptitude. Proper orientation in an on-going program would interest some of them to the extent of causing them to work up to their capacities.

A third group is made up of a small handful of students in high school who have somehow become aware of the opportunities in the fields of the technician, and who are vigorously pursuing their goals, often laboring under a handicap of competing with the ablest of college-prep students in their science and mathematics classes. Such boys would profit immensely from courses geared to their occupational goals which emphasize practical applications rather than theory.

If junior and senior high schools identified these three groups of average, capable learners, if high school programs were instituted to prepare these students for further education in college-level technician curriculums, if a program could be devised to motivate these students toward goals that are attainable and reasonably sure of resulting in satisfying employment, if—

In California, for example, there are three levels of collegiate-level education: public and private universities; public and private colleges; public junior colleges and private technical institutes. In the realm of public higher education in California, the junior colleges have had delegated, as one of their objectives, education for occupational competence in the engineering technician fields. This institutional mission is shared by private technical insti-

tutes. Thus, a third pathway of preparation in California junior and senior high school should be considered; that pathway should be characterized by programs and courses designed to prepare students to continue their education in engineering technology fields at junior colleges and private technical institutes.

Educating the engineering technician at the college level is a specialized field. Can leadership in this educational field be provided by other than junior college and private technical institutes? University and state college faculties have professors who are interested in, and have understanding views about, technical institute education. However, these men are not directly involved in teaching courses in technical institute curriculums. Furthermore, engineering faculties from this level of higher education have enviable backgrounds in the fields of professional engineering and related academic areas. Professors in college teacher training divisions or university schools of education have a reading, writing and speaking acquaintance with engineering technology programs but little or no experience in either teaching technical courses or industrial experience. There are few men in the traditional vocational, federally-reimbursed type of trade training programs who have teaching backgrounds, engineering schooling or industrial experience related to college-level engineering technician programs. Most men in this area of secondary education have fine backgrounds in carpentry, auto mechanics, printing and such trade or craftsman fields. However, the "vocational" approach to technical institute education (which is phrased "vocational-technical training") could develop into

college-level programs from its basic definition as "less than college grade" education.

Junior college and private technical institutes are the logical collegiate-level institutions which can provide leadership for developing engineering technical education. It follows that engineering faculties from these institutions must seek the cooperation of junior and senior high school teachers, counselors and administrators in order that a positive third preparatory pathway may become part of the secondary schools' programs.

Leaders must recognize their own limitations. It is apropos, therefore, to indicate that junior colleges and private technical institutes have problems of standards, uniformly qualified staff and curriculum revisions. However, the positive effect of the Technical Institute Division, American Society for Engineering Education and the accreditation criteria for technical institute education established by the Engineering Council for Professional Development provide direction for improvement of these recognized problems. Such national assistance coupled with local industrial and school district cooperation allow one to become enthusiastic about progress in technical institute education in the near future.

An initial step in the direction of cooperation between secondary schools and a technical institute was announced recently; it illustrates the type of leadership needed in the field of engineering technology education. The public school district of Richmond, California, has joined with Cogswell Polytechnical College, San Francisco, California, in investigating programs and courses for the high school level which will motivate as well as prepare

students for future training in technical fields. This cooperative venture is to be a six-week summer workshop held at the Cogswell facilities during 1961. The Rosenberg Foundation has provided the financial support.

Cogswell Polytechnical College, a private technical institute, offers three engineering curriculums accredited by E.C.P.D. The positive effect of standards and experience in engineering technician education have generated facts and ideas about the field. A private philanthropic foundation has shown interest in the potential of average American youth. Rich-

mond public school educators, teachers of mathematics, science, and industrial arts, counselors and administrators have accepted a responsibility to explore the possibilities of a third pathway in high school, a pathway leading average capable learners toward future collegiate-level education and employment in technical fields. Here leadership has taken the form of a cooperative venture. It is a significant undertaking for the state of California. What other sources of leadership for the average capable learner are available and how soon will they become effective?

Vocational Choices and Their Significance for the Self-Structure¹

PAUL R. GIVENS

INTEREST IN the vocational decisions of young people springs from two general concerns: the significance of the choice for the individual chooser and the implications of the choice for society. In determining the "rightness" or "wrongness" of a vocational decision, there are many questions to consider. If John decides to be a physician instead of a high school art instructor, will he be happy with the choice? Is this the kind of work which will lead to greater personal fulfillment for him? Of importance, too, is the meaning his choice has for the social order of which he is a part. What is the relative distribution of physicians and art teachers in his society? Is he contributing to a mal-distribution of human talents? The purpose of this article is to relate vocational choice to changes in the individual's self-structure since to speak of the emergence of an individual's vocational choice—or any human choice—requires discussion of the total evolvment of a person.

A SENSE OF IDENTITY

Most vocational choices are made during adolescence—a time when significant changes are taking place in the developing individual. Adolescence is a period of

commitment, commitment to formal college education, to a religion, and perhaps marriage, as well as to a vocation. Decisions made in these areas are ones which emerge from a set of rather stable, yet changeable, self-concepts. The person is striving for a sense of identity involving not only identification of himself but identification with his perceived surroundings. This calls for a series of self-evaluations which has long-range implications for the individual since it involves "the subjective experience of being one's real self."²

Out of the continuous process of self-evaluation ultimately will come a sense of identity which has a reasonable firm entrenchment in reality. Meanwhile, there are pressures from within the individual adolescent and from society to declare a vocational choice now, without delay. The expectations of parents perhaps exercise a subtle yet highly significant influence on the young person to disclose his vocational intentions.

The youngster finds himself in an ambivalent situation. Society (primarily the home and school) is requiring a vocational commitment of an individual who as yet has not identified himself to an extent that a vocational choice can be made

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¹ Adapted from a paper presented to the faculty of Broward County Junior College, Ft. Lauderdale, Florida.

² S. Jourard, *Personal Adjustment* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1958), p. 305.

with confidence. Often the young person, finding a decision necessary to placate significant individuals in his life, seems to assume an identity which may or may not be consistent with his real self. This assumption of an identity often reflects a distortion of the individual's true self and thus is a compromise of himself with the molding forces of society; it is often a concession of personal integrity.

Many parents and educators have noted the response of the returning college freshman when asked, "What vocational field are you entering?" Often with an air of feigned confidence, he will respond that law or engineering is his considered selection. Cornered by the subtle pressures to decide, he has perhaps made a decision without benefit of counsel or knowledge. His value referents lie outside of himself and thus he has yet to develop his identity in light of his own inclinations. Such a predicament can eventually result in much unhappiness since it marks an incongruency between one's self-structure and the real self. Several theorists have emphasized that a person's ideals and values should be experienced as his own, and not those of someone else.³

The individual must reach a state wherein there is what Carl Rogers refers to as an internal locus of evaluation, a reliance on oneself for a standard to live by rather than referring to others for decisions and choices.⁴ This accent on self-direction is becoming of great importance in all aspects of education. The modern American school, forced by the realities of enrollment explosions, is looking with new

zeal for ways of promoting self-education. This emphasis has implications for vocational guidance since the individual is encouraged to build an internal frame of reference which will make vocational choices less stressful. Any educational activity which makes possible greater definition of one's value system is of great consequence to the individual. Thus, the individual can be "helped" most by a counselor who provides atmosphere for such definition rather than one who insists upon a premature "declaration of vocational intent."

The impelling influence of peers is also of importance in convincing the adolescent of the urgent need for a vocational choice. Donald Super cites a situation illustrative of this:

One new high school graduate, talking with his counselor at a guidance center, reported that: "Every boy in my class said in the Yearbook that he was going to be a doctor, lawyer, or engineer; I said engineer, too, but I know that stuff's not for me." Despite this knowledge, he felt impelled by group opinion to express some such ambition for publication.⁵

The importance of the ever-influencing peer in "assisting" the vocational chooser seems to receive little attention from investigators in the area of vocational development. Educators, too, have often been party to the demand that young people make a premature commitment to both educational and vocational goals. The result has often been an intensification of guilt and associated feelings of worthlessness in the adolescent who feels that there must be something wrong with him if he doesn't at least express a voca-

³ S. Jourard, *op. cit.*, p. 292.

⁴ L. Small, "Personality Determinants of Vocational Choice," *Psychol. Monography*, 1953, 67, No. 1.

⁵ D. Super, *The Psychology of Careers* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957), p. 245-249.

tional decision regardless of its weak experimental basis.

David Riesman, in a speech to the National Catholic Education Association this year, suggests that for most students college will be the last opportunity to define who they are and what they enjoy doing. He emphasizes, therefore, that they should be prevented from too early closure in making educational and vocational decisions. Riesman says, "... what I am asking for is the 'uncertain freshman' who becomes less sure who he is, not because some teacher convinced him he is not as good as he thought he was in the field of his expertise, but rather because he has opened up wider possibilities of experience and self-definition."⁶

Riesman is asking for a certain tolerance of indecision on the part of parents and educators. Perhaps educators and parents are unable to stand the uncertainties of vocational decision-making, whereas young people, if given the freedom to explore more freely, might find this atmosphere congenial to serious self-evaluation and discovery.

EXPLORATION AND DELIBERATION

There is a second aspect of vocational decision-making which seems to be of great significance to the chooser. This is the tendency of the individual (especially in the more advanced stages of vocational deciding): (1) to explore himself and his surroundings and (2) to deliberate the choice.

Fantasy and the Emergence of a Choice: Ginzberg, et. al., have hypothesized that three periods of choice are evi-

dent in deciding upon a vocation: "a period during which the individual makes what can be described as a fantasy choice; the period during which he is making a tentative choice; and a period when he makes a realistic choice."⁷

It seems reasonable that the young person, in his search for a sense of self-definition, will use fantasy referents as criteria for vocational choices. In the language used in this discussion, a fantasy decision would be an instance of assumed identity, i.e., the choice emerges from an imaged self rather than a self which is validated in reality.

That a vocational choice based on fantasy involvement is made at all ages is supported by a study by Small who found that both reality and fantasy concerns are apparent at all ages in vocational deciding. Small further points out that a vocational choice seems to involve a compromise between one's fantasies and the realities of the world. His finding that better adjusted boys showed greater realism in their vocational preferences than disturbed children prompted Small to conclude that ego functions are important in effecting a compromise between reality and fantasy.⁸ It seems very likely that one must have sufficient ego strength—a certain ability to act in reference to his basic reality—if he is to make choices (vocational or otherwise) which are wise for him. Individuals who do not make choices on this basis find themselves attempting to twist their perception of the vocation to fit their personal needs.

⁷ E. S. Ginzberg, S. A. Ginsburg, S. Axelrad, and J. L. Herma, *Occupational Choice, and Approach to a General Theory* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951).

⁸ L. Small, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

⁶ D. Riesman, *Changing Colleges and Changing Values*, Mimeographed, 1961.

Provisional Commitment: A certain involvement in fantasy is expected in the diffident college student faced with a complex decision. The young person, threatened by the ambiguity of vocational development, is cautious in committing himself sincerely to a work situation wherein the probabilities of failure are great. Thus, he may make a provisional commitment to a vocation, one wherein opportunities for retreat and change remain present. It is probably safe to assume that many adults spend much of their working time only provisionally committed to their vocations. Thorough involvement in a vocation often gives way to the pleasures of fantasy gratification. This seems not to be restricted to youth; however, it is probably more likely to occur during preparation for employment than during employment itself.

The implication here is not that the majority of young people enter occupations they would not expect to enter. Rosenberg reports that 78 per cent of his sample of college students desired to enter the occupations they actually expected to enter. Rosenberg emphasizes that "this does not mean, of course, that these people have been blithely free of occupational conflict during the entire course of their college careers; rather, it indicates that, in the course of time, they come to 'want' what they realistically expect to get . . . they come to modify (their occupational aspirations) in accordance with the brittleness of reality."

Self-concept changes result in an adjusting of aspiration levels which may culminate in a wise vocational choice, a choice which is "right" for the chooser.

⁹ Morris Rosenberg, *Occupations and Values*, (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957).

But until the individual progressively defines himself and understands more clearly his relationship to his surroundings, he will inevitably grope with the insecurities of a provisional commitment.

Before a firm commitment can be made, the typical young person has much to learn about his inner self. He should explore both his inner feelings and thoughts and the opportunities available in his environmental setting. Early concern with educational and vocational alternatives is characterized by fluctuations in intentions. This is certainly understandable in view of the fact that the adolescent is caught between a persistent drive for security on the one hand and a demand for independence on the other. Such a conflict stimulates an explorative search for self-identity and an identification with the world of work. In view of this tendency it is interesting to note that Morris Rosenberg, in his much needed study of occupational choices and values, found that "most students want a job in which they can use their 'special abilities and aptitudes' or in which they have an opportunity to be 'creative and original' . . . the emphasis upon these values continues to increase during the course of their college careers, while the concern with the extrinsic rewards of work (e.g., security) tends to wane."¹⁰ In the healthy individual this yearning for opportunities to carry out exploratory activities in a vocational setting is persistent. That these tendencies were found in such frequency among college students is a forthright challenge to educators.

The quest for self identification is reflected vividly in the lives of young people

¹⁰ Morris Rosenberg, *op. cit.*, p. 125.

as they move from a period of assumed identity through periods of provisional vocational commitment, determined exploration, and deliberation. There is not necessarily a set time sequence of such stages, but they are significant periods of self-discovery which are reflected from time in the process of vocational development. The self-discovery process goes on throughout life, but it is very evident in the struggles of an immature individual forced to make a vocational selection.

As the movements of man in his efforts to find his relationship to the world of work are observed, one is impressed with the fact that individuals are really *processes*, not fixed entities. The young person reflects vividly the ever-changing nature of growing individuals. Carl Rogers has noted this in his study of the characteristics of individuals suffering through the painful processes of psychotherapy. Rogers speaks of an emergence of a "person." A distinguishing characteristic of one who is becoming a person is a *willingness to be a process*. To Rogers this means that "a person is a fluid process, not a fixed and static entity; a flowing river of change, not a block of solid material; a continually changing constellation of potentialities, not a fixed quantity of traits."¹¹

This flowing process of becoming an individual should be looked upon by advisers as the essential data of the individual in the advising process. The changeable qualities of the young person can be viewed in this way, or they can be looked upon as bothersome realities which interfere with the adviser's efforts to ef-

fect worthwhile changes in the individual. It seems sensible to choose the former view and provide atmospheres wherein the individual will attain increasingly effective levels of functioning.

The Process of Deliberation: It might be well to examine briefly the process of deliberation in the choice of a vocation. Abraham Maslow strongly indicts Americans for their concern for the superficial and the mundane. Maslow writes: "The lack of meditateness and inwardness of real conscience and real values is a standard American personality defect; a shallowness, a superficial living on the surface of life, a living by other peoples' opinions rather than by one's own native, inner voice."¹²

This observation has implications for the guidance of youngsters in their search for a meaningful vocation. The youngster must be helped to regard the value of mediation or deliberation. In the busyness of modern American living the young person is caught up in a frenzy of overt activity (usually organized) so that there is little time or opportunity to reflect quietly the meaning of his experience to him. Moreover, many of them do not wish to.

As the yen for a sense of identification awakens him, the young person may become abruptly aware of the need to examine his personal resources. This realization can lead to swift and accurate self-perceptions which will facilitate a personally satisfying vocational choice. Thus, the educator can assist in this process by emphasizing the value of, and providing opportunity for, free deliberate explora-

¹¹ Carl R. Rogers, "What It Means to Become a Person," in C. E. Moustakas, *The Self* (New York: Harper and Bros., 1956).

¹² Abraham Maslow, "Personality Problems and Personality Growth" in C. E. Moustakas' *The Self* (New York: Harper and Bros., 1956).

tion of the self-structure. Engagement in the lost art of meditative reflection can be a valuable means by which this search can take on deep meaning for the individual.

FREEDOM TO CHOOSE

The determinist would lead one to believe that the individual confronted with any decision is restricted in his freedom to choose. While it is not the intention to discuss here the broad free-will vs. determinism question, it should be noted that as the individual's identity becomes clearly defined, his capacity for free choice becomes greater. Gordon Allport points out that a person harboring many determining tendencies is really freer than a person who harbors few. Allport says that "a person having only one skill, knowing only one solution, has only one degree of freedom. On the other hand, a person widely experienced and knowing many courses of conduct has many more degrees of freedom. It is in this sense that the broadly educated man is freer than the man narrowly trained."¹³

To draw a parallel from Allport's cogent remarks, one might say that the young person who has engaged in sincere efforts to discover himself will be freer to select his vocation confidently without coercion or pretense. Insofar as the chooser remains chained to the past, he will demonstrate the familiar symptoms of immature indecision. The evolution of a vocational choice might consist of a series of free choices. The school and home can provide an atmosphere wherein freedom becomes a key word in the indi-

vidual's self-structure—freedom to experiment, to explore, to deliberate, to attempt, to make mistakes, and to attempt again. As such freedom is allowed—the progressive phenomenon of freedom leading to self-definition, resulting in greater freedom of choice—a confident self-directed individual will emerge. To provide an atmosphere wherein such growth is possible is to promote the emergence of personally enriching vocational decisions.

In America the word "success" has come to hold a special place in the thinking of everyone. It seems that the freedom to make mistakes, to struggle awkwardly, yet freely, through problem situations should be one of the most appreciated "rights"; it has such pointed relevance to the throes of vocational decision making. Perhaps educational advisement efforts have too often encouraged young people to fictionize a final product called "success" rather than meet the challenge of personal discovery. When young people think less in terms of "arriving" in life and more in terms of "proceeding" in life, then, perhaps, they will take time to appreciate more deeply the magnificent process of personal discovery and growth. Encouragement to think of themselves "in process" must be coupled with the freedom to grapple with the sometimes discomfiting process of self-discovery and fulfillment.

This is the essential challenge of vocational guidance.

The vocational counselor (broadly speaking, most educators engage in vocational counseling) has traditionally been identified with the words "advice," "guidance," "help." These words suggest an activator's relationship to a relatively helpless individual. Furthermore, the

¹³ Gordon Allport, *Becoming: Basic Considerations for a Psychology of Personality* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1955).

words "vocational goals," and "life plans" intimate a certain directionality to the whole relationship—an anticipated arrival at a certain state. The term "personality structure" suggests a fixed entity.

While these are perhaps helpful labels, they reflect a preoccupation with the molding of the individual into a predetermined form when truly the concern should be with the process of moving toward higher levels of self-identification. An orientation to counseling (and other student-teacher relationships) which includes this essential confidence in the individual's potential for growth will result in a revised concept of what is called "perfection." The perfect vocational choice becomes one which is consistent with the individual's growing efforts to identify himself. To the young person who is searching for a familiarity with his real self, definitions of perfection based on external, personally inconsequential values, are of little significance. The guiding authority lies within the free experiencing individual.

THE CHALLENGE OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

The junior college movement reflects well the commission America feels to educate its young people. Without the junior college opportunity, many students would not get to college at all. Yet, a problem arises in matters involving the part-time junior college student. Ideally, the individual should be provided with a setting in which to find himself. While, of course, it is not always possible to have the complete attention of the full-time student, the part-time student is probably less attentive. Students should be encouraged to become totally immersed in the college

program so that they will show the progress they need to make in this process of self-discovery. It also becomes the special challenge of junior college educators to help the student generalize this sincere search for his real self to all areas of his life. Cooperative work programs and other such college-community projects should have a common mission: to provide opportunities for the individual to gain this knowledge and "feel" for what he is, what he wants to do, and why. From such revelations, authentic and unaffected vocational choices emerge.

These first two years of college are ones which hold a place of prominence in the total life of the individual. The "calling" of the junior college educators is to make these years count for new strides in self-discovery. The junior college student who is first in and then out of college—often one-third at home, one-third at college, and one-third on the job—has special need for this opportunity for growth.

SUMMARY

Some of the factors considered important in influencing one to select a vocation have been examined here, and an attempt to present a central theme; i.e., that a vocational choice is an expression of man's search for his identity. This ever-present process of self-discovery is carried on at various levels of insight and represents perhaps the basic concern of the individual throughout life.

In his struggle with vocational decision-making, the young person at first lives in reference to the values of other significant persons in his life, thus he *assumes an identity* as a first step toward vocational commitment. As his confidence is strengthened he then makes a *pro-*

visional vocational commitment, and as he finds greater definition of himself, he makes a more confident (but not necessarily final) vocational decision based on *exploration and deliberation*.

The selection of a vocation is a strug-

gling—and sometimes painful—effort to find the reality of one's self in his work. Educators are fortunate to experience the rewards which come in assisting young people in this difficult but exciting venture.

The Self Evaluation Study

EARL R. STIVERS

EVERY college at one time or other finds it either necessary or desirable to make a self-appraisal. Manatee Junior College, at the end of its third year of operation, has just completed a self-study for the purpose of receiving accreditation by the State Department of Education and taking the first step to obtain accreditation by the Southern Association of Schools and Colleges. The plan of this study, its operation, and cost are reported for the benefit of others who may wish to undertake a similar evaluation.

The genesis of this project was in August, 1960, at the pre-school conference when an overall guide was given to the faculty stating the reasons for the study and outlining the procedures. Briefly, the procedures were:

- A. All faculty personnel would be involved.
- B. Regular meetings would be held during the college year.
- C. A list of leading questions was submitted as a starting point.
- D. Faculty members could submit statements and make suggestions as needed.
- E. Questionnaires could be used by the committees.
- F. Faculty-wide meetings would be called to hear progress reports.
- G. Consultants would be called in for discussions with individual committees.

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H. The Self-Study would be divided into three phases:

Phase 1. From the pre-school conference to the middle of October, committees would orient their thinking, note questions needed for study, draw up proposed questionnaires.

Phase 2. From the middle of October to the middle of January, the committees would collect data and shape up the rough draft of their findings. Consultants would be brought in and reports given to the faculty.

Phase 3. From the middle of January to the first of March, the final drafts would be written.

Briefly, the committees were asked to operate within this framework:

1. What are Manatee Junior College's objectives in any given area?
2. How well is the college achieving its objectives?
3. In what ways can the college do a better job?

The faculty was organized under the following committees:

1. Philosophy and Purpose
2. Curriculum
3. Administrative and Institutional Relationships
4. Faculty and Instruction
5. Student Personnel
6. The Community
7. Admission and Graduation
8. Library
9. Physical Plant

10. Finances, Business Management, Records

An agenda was formulated to serve as a guidepost and 14 two- to three-hour meetings were scheduled for lectures by consultants, reports of committees, and work sessions. Altogether, 12 consultants met with the faculty, usually devoting approximately an hour to a lecture or symposium and then spending a second hour with one of the committees.

The first committee had its report, together with results of questionnaires and recommendations, complete by mid-February; the last committee had its report complete by mid-April. Some committees prepared extensive questionnaires, although most of them were limited to one page. The questionnaires were circulated one at a time when convenient to the particular committee. The slowness in getting returns sometimes made the work of the committee difficult. One committee chairman suggested that all questionnaires be given to the faculty at one time in a general meeting and be filled out on the spot.

When the committee reports were filed, they were reviewed in detail by the chairman of the Steering Committee which corrected obvious errors and deleted material which was not pertinent. Conclusions and recommendations were not altered. After approval, the reports were sent to the Business Department for processing.

The amount of work involved in processing and putting the report in final shape is usually not fully appreciated. The first stencils were cut in mid-February and the last in late April. Mimeographing followed closely behind receipt of stencils and stacks of pages were always in evidence

for two and one-half months. Correcting, collating, checking and binding kept the Business Office and several people busy for the entire period.

The steps and times involved for the 376-page report were:

| | |
|--|------------------|
| 1. Edit the report and plan the pages | |
| Time required | — 10 hours |
| 2. Cut stencils | |
| Time required | — 75 hours |
| 3. Proof reading stencils | |
| Time required | — 20 hours |
| 4. Mimeographing report | |
| Time required | — 80 hours |
| 5. Removing slip sheets | |
| Time required | — 20 hours |
| 6. Correcting pages, erasing ink lines (on bond paper) and discarding poor pages | |
| Time required | — 20 hours |
| 7. Collating pages | |
| Time required | — 20 hours |
| 8. Checking reports for incomplete pages and the correct number of pages in proper order | |
| Time required | — 30 hours |
| 9. Assembling final report | |
| Time required | — 10 hours |
| 10. Binding report | |
| Time required | — 6 hours |
| 11. Handling, packing, storing | |
| Time required | — 9 hours |
| TOTAL | 300 hours |

This does not include estimated time by the committees in preparing, typing, and running of questionnaires, easily another 20 hours.

The final report was 376 pages, with cover and back in addition. One hundred copies were processed on mimeograph paper using both sides. Twenty-five copies were processed for permanency on bond paper. Slip sheeting was required for every sheet to avoid offset. Feeding the slip sheets was done automatically, but re-

moving them was a manual task. Some ideas of the materials used and their cost may be gleaned from the following data:

| | Cost |
|------------------------------|---------|
| 5,000 Slip Sheets | \$45.00 |
| 400 Stencils | 49.92 |
| 50 reams Mimeograph Paper | 60.00 |
| 150 Covers and Backs | 40.00* |
| 25 reams Bond Paper | 86.25 |
| 150 Acco Fasteners | 5.25 |
| 1 pair Mimeo Steel Bands | 2.75 |
| 12 Tubes of Ink | 29.76 |
| 6 Bottles Correction Fluid | 3.00 |
| 1 Mimeo Silk Screen | 3.95 |
| Binding 2 copies for Library | 14.00 |

TOTAL MATERIAL COST \$339.88

The evaluation committee, consisting of nine outstanding educators from universities, colleges and the State Department of Education, complimented the college on its excellence and the faculty on the thoroughness of the self-study. All involved feel that the project was educational and valuable to the college.

* Includes drilling holes in reports for fasteners. Masters and Spirit duplicator paper for questionnaires during survey are not included here.

Junior College Student Teachers

ROBERT H. WILSON

PERHAPS ONE of the most satisfactory experiences of a teacher is to be able to see the growth of the student. In the writer's experience, nothing has more clearly provided this experience than the growth to be seen in working with student teachers. Through supreme assuredness, to abject surrender, to self-confidence, to uncertainty and many other descriptive terms one can observe the growth and development of competency in the student teachers. The following paragraphs will describe the supervision of student teachers in the academic program, specifically the social sciences, including history, sociology, political science and geography. These student teachers are graduate students with M.A.'s or nearing completion of the master's degree. Although brief mention will be made of the relation to the classroom supervisor and junior college administration, major attention will be focused on the student teacher in the classroom and his problems.

Recognizing the individual classroom as an integral part of the institution, and realizing that it operates under the philosophies and policies of the institution, the college supervisor should make every effort to understand the framework within which the student teacher will work. Before any contact is made with the classroom the supervisor should become ac-

quainted with these policies and philosophies. The best source of help and information should be the dean of instruction or, in some cases, the president. If the dean of instruction has the time, it is helpful to visit his office to discuss the expectations of the junior college in regard to the student teaching program. Often at this point it is possible to obtain information which will prevent trouble for both the supervisor and the student teacher. Consideration should be given to such matters as attendance at faculty meetings, grading standards, availability of assistance from the dean, specific expectations of faculty (because now the student teacher will be operating as a faculty member); in fact, if possible, a copy of the faculty policy manual should be obtained. The examination of this manual should provide selected material which may be discussed with the student teacher to prepare him better for his role.

If time and convenience of the institution permits, the next logical step is to meet with the department head. Such a meeting could provide a better understanding of the specific steps which have been taken by the department to implement the policies of the school. While it might be impossible for the supervisor to visit all members of the department to gain some impression of the interrelations and attitudes towards the purposes of the department, he may be invited to attend departmental meetings where he could gain valuable information concerning

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what is expected of the members and what they are doing to meet these expectations.

The next step is to meet with the classroom supervisor to learn what he will expect from the student teacher and to inform him what the college will expect of the student teacher. The classroom supervisor becomes the key person in this experience, and the college supervisor should make every effort to work closely with him, listen to his suggestions, and aid him in any way he can. During this meeting, the times for discussing observations should be arranged, nature of the course and classroom procedures discussed and the relationship of the student teacher to the classroom supervisor established.

The initial meeting with the student teacher should be spent learning about the student-teacher; in fact, it might be useful to have him write an autobiography, with an extra copy for the resident teacher. In these early interviews the supervisor should be gaining an impression of the strengths and weaknesses of the student teacher. Two problems which may develop are some weakness in preparation for the course which is to be taught, a particular area or subject, and some rather obvious but minor personality difficulty, which may simply be a matter of timidity. Early in the relationship is the time to start working on these problems. The supervisor will not accomplish a complete personality reformation, but it should be within his ability to bolster confidence, correct personal mannerisms, detect speech difficulties, etc.

Between the two problem areas mentioned, there is a direct relationship. The best way to a satisfactory performance as a student teacher is through good preparation. At this stage it is difficult to deduce

the student's academic preparation, but through interview it is often possible to determine from the student his own knowledge of strength and weakness. For example, in a survey course of U. S. history he may have some question as to his knowledge of the Reconstruction Period. It is therefore advisable to have available a list of references in each of the areas which may be of assistance to the student, and, if necessary, seek information from a college staff member in the particular field as to what advice should be given to the student teacher.

However, beyond academic preparation, the planning of a semester's work should prove valuable to the student teacher; this method, however, is not to be considered the only approach. Once the student teacher has visited with the resident teacher and learned the nature of the course and its content, it is then time to start the planning. The student teacher should obtain from the resident teacher, if available, the syllabus of the course (normally on file in the dean's office). These may only be suggested forms, and the individual classroom teacher may have his own modification of the syllabus. It should be impressed upon the student teacher that this is primarily the resident teacher's class, and he must work within this teacher's framework. Naturally, if it were determined that the framework did not provide an adequate experience, it would be necessary to attempt to place the student teacher in another situation. Making an assumption that agreement has been reached with the resident teacher, the student teacher is now in a position to begin planning the course. This is much more than busywork, although sometimes the student teacher has to be so

convinced. It should be shown that careful planning at this point will not only make the student teaching experience easier but should provide the basis for at least one course which the student teacher will be responsible for when employed.

Many student teachers have little or no prior experience with course planning. They are asked to prepare a general course outline but not to the depth of a course of study. Included will be the course broken down by units, sources, calendar and general statement of method, particular methods they may be considering, and selected bibliographic references. They are asked to do this during the early weeks of the semester before they assume responsibility for daily lectures. During this initial planning, it is expected that they will work in close cooperation with their resident teacher. There may be a divergence of opinion, but, generally speaking, the course outline follows very closely the prior planning of the resident teacher.

Much of the difference of opinion lies in the relative importance of subject matter content. Normally, it can be pointed out that even though outlined for later use, it is possible to use the general framework of the resident teacher. Once the general course outline is developed, most resident teachers accept the student teacher's outline.

As part of this general course outline, the student teacher is asked to indicate specifically the purposes of the course. This outline of purposes or objectives provides the basis for the full development of the course. Most subjects lend themselves to division into units of work, and the student teacher is requested to establish objectives for each of the units. The objectives of the course should be fulfilled in

the objectives of the units. It follows that when daily presentations are developed, the objectives of these should fulfill the objectives of the units, which in turn are doing the same for the course objectives. Some student teachers are reluctant to tackle this work, but once having done it, they begin to rely on the technique and it seems to provide a strong foundation for their daily presentations.

A common question which seems to arise at this point is, "How do I know what the schedule on the calendar should be?" It is pointed out that only through experience, trial and error, will students be able to determine their calendar. It is pointed out that the schedule is certainly subject to change and should not be followed with such rigidity as to spoil the teaching effectiveness. Since most of the courses that are involved are lecture situations, it becomes incumbent upon the student teacher to realize early the amount of preparation necessary for their presentation. This means more than time; it means content, resources, teaching methods, examinations, etc.

As the time nears for the classroom presentation and preparations are being made for daily work, many student-teachers begin to wonder about their ability to have enough material, how to answer questions which will not be expected, what physical presence is demanded, and whether or not they are adequately prepared. If they will break down the units properly and derive the objectives of the daily plans from the unit objectives, they have made a good start. If they are in an area in which they do not feel well prepared academically, the answer is to restudy the area. While it is almost impossible for students to anticipate or know the answers to all

the questions which may be asked of them, they should be cautioned that this reasoning should not be used as an excuse for being inadequately prepared.

In many of the lecture situations, the lecture seems to become a psychological defense, and frequently students are unwilling to leave this haven of security. When this does occur, one of the best ways to overcome the problem is to work on the matter of preparation in the subject matter area and related specific teaching methods. The student-teacher should be encouraged to write fully his reaction to his daily presentation at the bottom of his lesson plans. When reviewing with the student his performance, these self-notes may be invaluable in pointing out suggestions for his improvement. The supervisor should take a positive attitude and attempt through suggested techniques or analysis of the self-comments to help the student overcome his difficulty in the area of human relations. The use of the office hour, for example, by the student teacher is often of considerable aid; it helps the student-teacher and the class members to become better acquainted and provides grounds for a closer relationship in the classroom.

It is seldom that a junior college student-teacher will encounter a serious discipline problem. However, it should be pointed out that the class is a group, and the actions of an individual which are detrimental to the class as a whole cannot be tolerated, either by the student-teacher or the other class members.

After a brief period of teaching, the actual observations are begun. The student-teacher should be given an opportunity to get his feet on the ground. The following are some of the points which are

to be observed: The introduction of the material and its relationship to prior work, the organization and accuracy of the content in terms of objectives to be accomplished, the transitions from one idea to another, materials and methods used, the summary and conclusions, and the steps taken towards the next meeting. From a social-personal aspect, appearance, class rapport, poise, voice, enthusiasm, and self-control are observed. By no means are these the only factors to be considered, but they comprise the majority of the points. Each observation is followed by a meeting with the student teacher and the resident teacher to discuss the observation.

It becomes a real challenge to integrate the planning, the personal and interpersonal relations, the presentations, the observations of weekly meetings and post meetings into a whole which will do the best to develop a good teacher for the future. Beyond the classroom, the student-teacher is encouraged to get to know the school, to visit, where possible, the dean of students, the faculty meetings, student social and athletic events, the evening division, the placement service and any other phase of the junior college teacher. These explorations should lead to increasing the unique function of the junior college. The privileges and responsibilities of the junior college instructor should be thoroughly explored. The particular duties of the junior college instructor which are unique to this type of institution should be understood. It would be hoped that when the student-teacher has completed his work, he will recognize the presence of terminal and transfer students in one class and the demand of time upon the junior college instructor in his role as a participant in school and community

relations. It may be too much to hope that these and other matters may be fully comprehended until the student teacher is

employed, but such knowledge as is obtained should make him an effective teacher sooner in his chosen vocation.

Relationships Between Scholastic Aptitude Scores and Achievement of Junior College Freshmen

MONTY C. GUSTAFSON

THE USE OF entrance examination scores in the prediction of success in two-year colleges is a topic that is of interest to counselors and teachers. In theory, if measures of scholastic aptitude are available the counselor or guidance worker will have an index of the student's probability of success in earning grades.

Although many scholastic aptitude tests have been constructed for the purpose of measuring those developed abilities which are important to achievement in college, practical experience has shown that the validity of a scholastic aptitude test cannot be assumed for particular institutions or curriculums. Seashore has made the following statement about the use of tests for the prediction of achievement:

The standard academic predictors which are useful in colleges generally will be useful in junior colleges with similar student bodies or in academic sections of multi-purpose institutions. But experience has shown that validity of tests is specific to the situation.¹

Therefore, if a particular institution such as a junior college desires to know the validity of its entrance examinations, this in-

stitution must make a systematic investigation of the relationship between the scholastic aptitude tests administered to its incoming students and grades earned by these students.

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the *School and College Ability Test, Form 1A* (SCAT) and first semester grades earned by freshman students at Sheridan College. The SCAT, published by Educational Testing Service, purports to measure the capacity of the student for achievement at his next highest level. From the SCAT a total score (SCAT T) was available and also subtest scores which indicate measure of verbal ability and numerical ability. In many investigations of achievement it has been shown that past achievement is a powerful predictor. Therefore, in addition to analysis of SCAT scores it was desirable to analyze the relationship between past achievement as reflected by high school grade point averages (H.S.G.P.A.'s) and first semester college grades.

In Sheridan College it has been necessary to classify students into remedial and non-remedial sections in regard to mathematical ability and English composition skills. Special classes have been arranged which are better suited in terms of time and materials for the teaching of the above skills to students who lack ability in mathematics and English composition. Since the SCAT test purports to measure

¹ Harold Seashore, "Tests as Aids to Administration and Counseling in Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, XXVI, p. 507.

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quantitative and verbal abilities which are related to achievement, it became a further purpose of the present study to determine the relationship between SCAT quantitative scores (SCAT Q) and mathematics grades and also the relationship between SCAT verbal scores (SCAT V) and English grades. Knowledge of the foregoing relationships would be valuable in the use of SCAT V and SCAT Q scores as selection devices for remedial freshman mathematics and English classes.

The study sample was composed of 169 freshmen, 57 female students and 112 male students, who enrolled the fall semester of 1959. All students who completed the first semester were included in the study sample. Because of the fact that sex differences are often revealed in test scores it was decided that analysis should include a study of each sex separately as well as for the entire sample.

The first analysis was made between H.S.G.P.A.'s, SCAT T scores and first semester grades for the entire study sample. Table 1 summarizes the product-moment coefficients of correlation between prediction variables and the various criteria. The correlation between H.S.G.P.A.'s and first semester grade averages was computed to be .71, while the relationship between SCAT T scores and first semester grade averages was found to be .65. Both coefficients of correlation are statistically significant beyond the one per cent level. In examining the above relationships one can see that H.S.G.P.A.'s are a much stronger predictor of grades earned than SCAT T scores.

Although H.S.G.P.A.'s appear to be the strongest predictor of total freshman grade averages, there was the possibility that SCAT T scores were measuring some

TABLE 1
*Correlations Between Prediction Variables and
Sheridan College Freshman Grade Averages*

| | Prediction Variables | | | |
|------------------|----------------------|-----------|-----------|-------------------|
| | SCAT T | SCAT Q | SCAT V | H.S.G.- P.A.'s |
| Total GPA | .65† | .35† | .52† | .71† |
| Female Total GPA | .58† | .44† | .57† | .67† |
| Male Total GPA | .77† | .49† | .46† | .67† |
| Total Eng. GPA | .48† | .31† | .49† | .61† |
| Female Eng. GPA | .65† | .48† | .69† | .69† |
| Male Eng. GPA | .45† | .56† | .34† | .49† |
| Male Math. GPA | .36† | .40† | .24* | .40† |

* Significant beyond the 5 per cent level.

† Significant beyond the 1 per cent level.

factor that was not being measured by H.S.G.P.A.'s. The above possibility was explored through the use of the multiple regression technique where both variables were placed together in a single prediction scheme.² The relationship between these variables and total grade earned yielded a multiple coefficient of correlation of .80 which was found to be significant beyond the one per cent level. When combined, the variables H.S.G.P.A.'s and SCAT T scores had a higher correlation with first semester grades than either variable had singly with earned grades. Each of the foregoing prediction variables made statistically significant contributions to the prediction of the criterion.

Taking into consideration the relationship of both of the above predictors to the criterion of total grades earned, a multiple regression equation was developed to yield the best possible prediction of grades a student might earn at Sheridan College.

² J. E. Wert, C. O. Neidt, and J. S. Ahmann, *Statistical Methods in Educational and Psychological Research* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954).

This formula is shown below:

Predicted Grade Average = $-.0028 \times \text{H.S.G.P.A.'s} + .7574 \times \text{SCAT T} + 2.715$. In order to use the above formula for predicting the success of entering freshman at Sheridan College the H.S.G.P.A. of the student must be on a scale where one represents the highest possible grade and five represents a failing grade. The SCAT T score inserted into the formula must be a raw score.

Caution must be extended to those who may be tempted to utilize the multiple regression formula which was developed in this study. Due to differences in faculty, type of students, curriculum of the institution, grading practices, sources of students, and for many other reasons it cannot be expected that the relationship between SCAT T, H.S.G.P.A.'s and grades earned would be the same as that found at Sheridan College. It can be expected, however, that the general findings of this study would apply to other junior colleges although research must be conducted in these institutions to determine the exact relationship between scholastic aptitude test scores, H.S.G.P.A.'s and grades earned in a particular college.

The second part of the analysis of the present study included a comparison of the predictiveness of female total grade averages as opposed to male total grade averages. An examination of Table 1 reveals the fact that H.S.G.P.A.'s have the same coefficient of correlation for both female and male students. Also it can be seen that the SCAT T correlates more highly with total male grade averages than with female grade averages; the coefficients were .77 and .58 respectively. The SCAT V and SCAT Q subtest scores all show a lower relationship with female

and male grade averages than does the SCAT T score.

An analysis of the predictiveness of male English grades showed that no variable predicts male English grades to any great degree. Although all foregoing correlations are statistically significant, it is a general rule that in order for variables to show enough predictiveness to be used in the case of an individual student they must show a minimum correlation of approximately .60 to .65. If prediction of male English grades were made from any prediction variable in this study there would be too wide a margin of error for practical use.

A different picture was revealed for the prediction of female English grades. The variables SCAT T, SCAT V, and H.S.G.P.A.'s correlated with English grades .65, .69, .69 respectively. Any of the foregoing prediction variables should differentiate between levels of achievement of females in English classes and provide useful indices of future grade averages in this subject.

The correlations between all predictor variables and male mathematics grades were too low to warrant the recommendation that these predictors could be used for individual cases. As can be seen in Table 1, the correlations between predictors and male mathematics grades range from .24 to .40.

SUMMARY

Conclusions made in the present study must be limited to the Sheridan College study sample. Similar relationships between scholastic aptitude test scores, H.S.G.P.A.'s, and college grade averages can be expected in other junior colleges.

Both SCAT T and H.S.G.P.A.'s correlated .65 and .71 respectively with first semester grade averages for the entire study sample. Students will tend to earn grades commensurate with their scholastic ability as indicated by either of these prediction variables.

It was found that a better prediction scheme for total grades could be formed by combining SCAT T scores and H.S.G.P.A.'s into a single prediction scheme by the use of the multiple regression technique. Both variables added a significant amount of predictiveness to the multiple regression. The multiple coefficient of correlation was determined to be .80. The regression formula for the study

sample is shown in the text of this study.

The relationship between male English grades and any of the four prediction variables was not high enough to warrant the use of these predictors as indices of English ability for individual students. It was also found that mathematics grades were unpredictable for individual male students.

The prediction variables SCAT T, SCAT V, and H.S.G.P.A.'s were found to correlate .65, .69, and .69 respectively with female English grades. Each of these variables should provide an index of ability of female students to earn grades in English.

Statewide Planning Needed in Community College Development

DAMON D. REACH

THE PEOPLE of the United States have been engaged in a unique experiment in universal education from the very beginning of this country. They believe in a broad system of education at public expense for all youth and adults.

Since colonial times, education has been considered to be a function of the respective state governments. The acceptance of this state responsibility, however, has been accompanied by the conviction that it is desirable to have a large share of local control.

The advance of science and the growing intricacies of social and economic relationships are taking place at a remarkably rapid rate. The post-war era has witnessed extensive scientific and technological advances, and there has occurred a wide range of social and cultural shifts. As a result, modern living has become confused and complicated everywhere, and these changes have added greatly to the responsibilities of the schools. This complexity of modern civilization demands an extension of the period of organized education, as twelve years is not adequate to prepare for one's civic, economic, and social responsibilities.

During recent years educational leaders charged with the responsibility of attempting to adjust modern educational offerings to meet the interests and abili-

ties of every individual have shown an increasing interest in the rapidly growing movement to extend secondary education upward. The American people are aware of the need for a better trained citizenry to meet the complex problems they are sure to face in this rapidly changing society. It is imperative that the upper years of the high school and the early years of college training provide the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that each succeeding generation will need to live adequate lives and be competent to solve the pressing problems they are sure to meet.

To meet the needs of those individuals desiring more education, the junior college was established. However, it is engaged, in too many instances, in just offering freshman and sophomore college work. Many of these "junior colleges" are attempting to meet the needs of all the residents of the entire community served by the institution and are coming to be called the "community college."

This community college is a free public educational institution that establishes its function in terms of the needs of the geographical area in which it is located. The community college concept means a never-ending type of educational program. In addition to offering two years of education beyond the twelfth grade in a variety of fields, both vocational and non-vocational, it is also concerned with the educational needs of the entire community. This means it will also be the center of adult education and will have as its

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purpose educational service to the entire community.

SUGGESTIONS FOR STATEWIDE PLANNING

Since the state is charged with the responsibility for leadership in the development of programs of education to meet the needs of all the people, it is appropriate to suggest ways the state can fulfill its obligation. Most states have lagged thus far in providing public education at the post-high school level, but the people can, and will, provide the necessary funds for the extension of secondary education if the educational leadership of the state will take the following steps to set up and guide such a program.

1. The states should enact legislation to encourage the establishment of planned, statewide systems of community colleges, making educational opportunities at this level available to all youth and adults of each state. The community colleges would be a part of the public school system of the state and an integral part of the state's foundation program. The plan of state aid should be analogous to that being followed in the lower schools, except that the aid should be stepped up proportionately to the ratio of the estimated cost of community college education per student to the cost of the high school program per student.

2. Tuition fees should be eliminated, since even a moderate tuition charge has been found a serious obstacle to democratization. The youth who need most the kind of education here advocated are very often those who can least afford to pay tuition fees.

3. The great variations existing among the states in their ability to support public education adequately make it imperative that federal funds be provided to equalize educational opportunities. Without federal aid, it will be impossible to correct certain inequalities that should not be allowed to continue. Many of the states can never solve these problems merely with their own resources.

4. Community colleges should exist only where the enrollment will be sufficient to guarantee efficient and economical operation and an adequate curriculum offering to meet the educational needs of the area to be served. A working minimum enrollment of two to three hundred students is suggested. The plan of organization should be determined largely by local community conditions.

5. Consolidation of districts, including county districts in some areas, will be desirable. It is not recommended to consolidate at the post-high school level alone in order to have a district large enough for community college purposes.

6. Community college education should be available to every person in the state who can profit from it. In states where it will not be feasible to establish community colleges, in certain sparsely settled areas, a plan of subsistence allowances is recommended for those students who live beyond commuting distance of thirty miles and must live away from home while in attendance. However, such a plan probably cannot be instituted until states have had more experience with community colleges and until more information is available as to the number of prospective students needing such aid and the amount of aid required.

7. Community colleges should be established so as not to detract from the efficiency of each other, or to duplicate other educational facilities. Planning should include suggested ways for counties not supporting public community colleges to cooperate with other counties in making a community college available to all.

8. General legislation should be enacted requiring the state board of education to determine the feasibility of establishing a community college, and approval or disapproval should be based upon the results of a prior survey of the need, ability, facilities available, and prospective attendance of the proposed district. Such legislation should stipulate that community colleges should be established and maintained in accordance with prescribed rules and regulations adopted by the state board of education and should not be detailed, listing the minimum assessed valuation, fa-

cilities, total population, or minimum attendance a district must have to receive state approval. These rules and regulations will need to be changed from time to time to meet changing conditions.

9. To be successful, community colleges must have the support of the people within their immediate area. Legislation should be enacted requiring that all proposals for establishment of a community college be submitted to the voters residing in areas included in the proposed district. Action should be initiated by petition of a specified per cent of the electors in each district and the board of education.

10. Post-high school programs should be accredited on the same basis, and by the same agencies, as other high school programs are at present. This means the State Department of Education will be the agency to perform this function. Membership in the regional association of colleges and secondary schools will be the equivalent of accreditation. No institution of higher learning should act as an accrediting agency for the secondary schools of the state.

For this country to remain democratic, it is imperative that equal educational opportunities be provided for every individual through the secondary school, includ-

ing the community college, regardless of race, color, creed, or geographic location.

It has been established beyond a doubt that there should be a different type of education for the 50 per cent of college entrants who will terminate their education in two years or less from those who will continue for four years or more. Habits and traditions regarding attendance at regular colleges or universities must be examined. Careful studies should be made of the effect of public community colleges on the institutions of higher learning in the state, not to perpetuate any particular program, but so that an adequate educational program may be provided for all youth and adults in all sections of the state. Perhaps such planning will help public schools realize what Jefferson hoped for in his day: that the public school would enable the state to avail itself "of those talents which nature has sown as liberally among the poor as the rich, but which perish without use, if not sought for and cultivated."

Honors in the Junior College

A. MARTIN ELDERSVELD

IN ITS EARLY development, the junior college was conceived as a "transfer institution" with an "open-door" policy of admission. Freshman and sophomore programs of instruction were provided whereby all high school graduates could determine their qualifications for upper division college work. Subsequently, broadening of scope to include vocational and community service programs brought about the community-junior type of college of today, which still provides the first two years of college for qualified students, but includes a mixture of non-college level instruction as well.

Some junior colleges continue to emphasize the transfer curriculum, and consequently a large share of their students anticipate advanced work at a four-year college or university. In recent years, however, the trend at the junior college has been toward the expansion of occupationally-oriented education. The high school diploma, rather than high school achievement, remains the primary standard for junior college admission. As a result, more and more high school graduates in the average and lower ability groups are attending the junior colleges. It follows, therefore, and perhaps rightly so, that instruction must be geared to these groups. However, a sizable number of able students, for various reasons, continue to prefer their first two years at the junior

college. If instruction is directed to the average student, is the able student being neglected?

Recently, greater attention at the junior college has been given to the below-average student. In 1960, for example, a developmental program was established at Grand Rapids Junior College to provide pre-college level training for those students who, for the most part, had failed to apply themselves in high school. Graduates with less than 1.5 (*D+*) average in high school were offered refresher courses in English, reading, algebra, science, and a "how-to-study" orientation course, satisfactory completion of which would gain admission to the regular college program. Of the 77 "late-bloomers" originally admitted to this program, 17 were saved through the efforts of four full-time and one part-time faculty member. Can the expense for such meager results be justified?

In the fall of 1960, Grand Rapids Junior College enrolled 2,651 students of which 1,810 elected college-level transfer curriculums and 841 terminal or technical education. Of the 1,810 students, 1,321 were freshmen and 489 sophomores. Of the 1,321 freshmen, 19.1 per cent or 252 students, entered with 3.0 (*B*) or better averages in high school. Further, of the 489 sophomores, 24.7 per cent or 121 students had attained cumulative grade point averages of 3.0 or better. Thus, in terms of total transfer enrollment, 20.6 per cent or 373 students had demonstrated the academic interest and ability required

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of the potentially superior student. Are these students being adequately prepared to compete with their university peers? Do these numbers justify greater academic challenge in the classroom? In long-range perspective, with the ever-increasing enrollment bulge on campuses across the nation, should the junior colleges plan for greater numbers of able students?

These are some of the problems which faced the Council on Instructional Affairs at Grand Rapids Junior College during the past year. Through discussions concerning junior college philosophy, goals, instructional methods, and curricular offerings, it became increasingly clear that the instructor and student challenge was not available in some junior college classrooms. Certainly, the provision of instruction for the average student was not questioned; yet, pre-occupation in some instances with the marginal and sub-marginal student might tend to lower the level of classroom instruction and, as a result, some junior colleges may have failed to produce an academic challenge even for the average student. Likewise, forced to gear instruction to the average student, the instructor often lacked the opportunity for academic growth, and the able student frequently failed to receive an intellectually stimulating college experience. In its deliberations, the Council agreed that the need to provide an intellectual challenge for the able student was equally as great as the need to motivate the marginal student. Also, the need to provide instructors with more academically demanding classroom opportunities was evident, and the need to develop an attitude of full-time learning as the intellectual tone of junior college campuses was also apparent.

To meet these requirements and thus balance the junior college program, the Council established an experimental program in honors for the 1961-1962 academic year to include honors sections in English composition, English literature, and European history. During the year, teaching methods will be evaluated and, as interest grows, course offerings will be expanded. Thus, while fulfilling its obligations to the lower-ability groups, the college will in addition provide the able student with the academic challenge rightfully his. Later evaluation of honors instruction, perhaps, will prompt subsequent articles on methodology by the honors faculty.

In written form, the Honors Program was established by the Council in four phases, namely, (1) statement of aims and objectives, (2) selection process, (3) conduct of honors sections, and (4) administrative procedures. To encourage and perhaps assist in the establishment of honors instruction elsewhere, the Honors Program at Grand Rapids Junior College is outlined as follows.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

Grand Rapids Junior College, in an effort to recognize, encourage, and reward able students, has established a two-year Honors Program in which participating students are given an opportunity to receive more instruction and counseling than is possible in regular classes. The Program, which is entirely voluntary, provides honors classes of several types, such as new courses especially designed for honors candidates, separate sections of existing courses, and special instruction within present courses. The Honors Program is the college's answer to an urgent

need to spur the best young minds to work toward maximum development of their intellectual capacities.

The aims of the Honors Program are two-fold: (1) to encourage intellectual independence; to provide and recognize work of greater depth, scope, and originality; and to allow for individual variations among students in the use of the college's educational resources, and (2) to prepare the able student to enter senior college confident of his scholastic competence.

The general philosophy of the Honors Program at Grand Rapids Junior College is concerned with three major areas of responsibility, namely, the student, the college, and the community. For the student, the Honors Program aims to stimulate the able student to develop his talents by constantly associating him with his intellectual peers in classes which will challenge his ability, maturity, originality, and resourcefulness; to provide opportunities for more intensive and extensive study of regularly presented material which will enrich his background and stimulate enthusiasm for learning those facets of knowledge normally beyond the reach of the average student; to promote intellectual curiosity which will develop a deeper understanding of fundamental human problems; and, to establish proper study habits which will encourage initiative and academic self-discipline.

For the college, the Honors Program aims to provide course flexibility so that the interests and abilities of able students can be more fully developed; to make available to the faculty the rewards which are afforded by participation in high-level instruction of able students; and, to stimulate pedagogic enthusiasm and infuse the college with an enlivened spirit of real

dedication to learning which, in turn, will stimulate the development of additional areas of academic excellence as patterns for emulation. Such an objective involves placing instructors into academically demanding instructional situations requiring the most advanced teaching techniques and materials; encouraging instructors to re-appraise critically normal offerings and develop rigorous courses of instruction; introducing new courses within disciplines especially designed for able students; and providing interdisciplinary courses with a broad range of subject matter common to many areas of study which will allow the honors student to retain his professional orientation but at the same time enhance his educational opportunities.

And finally, for the community, the Honors Program aims to develop individuals who will continue academic interest in later life as a basis for leadership within the community; to develop citizens endowed with a depth and breadth of understanding as well as with a respect for ideas and for the life of the mind which Americans need to recognize and reward; and, to focus attention on several concrete programs of instruction in which administrators, counselors, and both high school and college instructors will cooperate for the benefit of the able student, such liaison providing a smoother transition for high school students into an intellectually stimulating college experience.

SELECTION PROCESS

The selection of students for participation in the Honors Program derives fundamentally from the meaning of the term "Honors Student." Grand Rapids Junior College defines such a student as one

whose desire for knowledge and whose capabilities are such that he can ably and profitably pursue a program of study which will both test and develop initiative and intellectual curiosity beyond the reach of the average student. The identification of students encompassed by such a definition is contingent upon the following criteria: (1) high school or previous college achievement, (2) placement examination scores, (3) pre-admission interview, and (4) motivation and desire to participate.

The factor of high school or previous college achievement prescribes that the student must have attained a grade point average of 3.0 or better in academic subjects elected at the high school level; must have graduated in the upper quarter of his graduating class; must have the recommendation of the high school counselor or principal referent to his ability to participate successfully in such a program; and, if transferring from another college or if already enrolled in the college, must have attained a cumulative grade point average of 3.0 to be admitted to the program. In placement examinations, the student must score at the 85th percentile or above in the Cooperative School and College Ability Test (SCAT) and at the 75th percentile or above in both the Cooperative Reading and Cooperative Mechanics of Expression Tests. And finally, the pre-admissions interview must reveal evidence of interest, maturity, initiative, self-discipline, and a sincere desire to participate in the Honors Program.

The Office of Admissions has the initial responsibility for screening prospective applicants for the Honors Program. A High School Fact Sheet is prepared for those students whose past records are indicative

of ability to profit by and succeed in such a program. The "fact sheet" contains information relative to the high school and the student, such as type of community, high school enrollment, class size, faculty, guidance personnel, curriculum, grading system, ability grouping, class rank, median I.Q., advanced placement, and test scores. Based on this information, the Office of Admissions makes honors recommendations to the Director of the Honors Program for further consideration by the Honors Council.

CONDUCT OF HONORS SECTIONS

This section involves two fields of action, namely, (1) conduct of the course with respect to content, and (2) conduct of the class with regard to the details of classroom procedure. In reference to course content, basic restrictions are specified to insure that students will receive an essential core of facts common to all course sections. The content of an honors section will include all of the elements of the basic subject matter of the course. It will be remembered that the course may serve as a prerequisite for advanced courses, and that future instructors will assume that students will have mastered certain facts. Accordingly, students and their instructor must agree that basic elements of the course are standardized and must be mastered. However, beyond including the basic content, the instructor is free to modify the course to suit the needs and interests of the students. In this manner, the students will fulfill their curricular requirements and also will satisfy their interests in the subject matter.

In class conduct, however, the instructor is allowed considerable academic freedom to modify procedures in the best in-

terests of the student. Specifications as to the conduct of the class are designed to maintain student morale and contribute to student maturation. In general, an honors section is conducted in a manner similar to the conduct of a regular section. Variation in procedure is based upon logical premises and not upon a desire to be different. Special procedures may be initiated which might result in an honors section becoming a measure of intellectual achievement rather than entirely social privilege. Standard attendance procedures are followed and written examinations are scheduled in a manner similar to the procedure for regular sections. It should be recognized that examinations in all courses are as necessary to the education of the student as are the facts learned in the everyday conduct of the class. And finally, standard grading procedures are employed. Students will not be assigned grades based upon class average but will be judged on individual performance.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES

The Honors Council is composed of a director, appointed by the Dean for a term of not less than two years, and the six divisional chairmen who will serve ap-

pointments of not less than one year. For the experimental program in honors during the 1961-1962 academic year, the Dean of Instructional Affairs and the members of the Council on Instructional Affairs will serve interim appointments as the director and members of the Honors Council. The faculty will be given an opportunity to volunteer for honors instruction; however, recommendations will be made by the Honors Council for appointment by the Dean. For record purposes, the symbol "HR" is suffixed to honors courses on the records of those students participating in the Honors Program. In addition, college-highschool-community liaison will be maintained by providing the high schools and parents with periodic reports of progress and performance by those students electing honors instruction.

This, then, is the honors experiment at Grand Rapids Junior College. It claims no originality in form nor objective. Significant only, perhaps, is the knowledge that the *junior college* is providing an intellectual challenge above and beyond average classroom instruction. In the pursuit of excellence, certainly the junior college can play a significant role.

California Junior College Faculty Handbooks

FREDERICK C. KINTZER

INTRODUCTION

ONE OF the most important documents published by junior colleges is the faculty handbook. This manual for instructional personnel, along with the college catalog, is among the most influential of junior college publications.

Comprehensive in scope, the faculty handbook contains a variety of material selected for its value to the teaching staff. It may include such materials as institutional purposes, duties and responsibilities of administrators, general regulations drawn from policies established by the board of trustees, calendars, maps, official forms and procedures. While diversity is the rule, faculty manuals have much in common and share many common features that are similar in organization and format.

The number of junior colleges publishing faculty handbooks is suggestive of their importance. When—as part of the UCLA Junior College Leadership Program—a Laboratory in Junior College Administration was established at the University of California, Los Angeles, in 1961, it was found that the publication colleges most often sent to the Laboratory was the

faculty handbook. Fifty-one California public junior colleges, for example, contributed their staff manuals.

In the work of the Laboratory, it has been observed that these publications are used frequently and also that questions regarding them are often asked by administrators and by representatives of faculty handbook committees. Despite the apparent widespread interest in the faculty handbook, little has been written to assist junior college committees in the preparation of such a publication.

In a somewhat cursory survey of the literature, 15 references to faculty handbooks were found—only one of which is directly concerned with junior college publications¹ The others deal with staff manuals for elementary and secondary schools.

Because of the interest in faculty handbooks and because so little has been written regarding them it was decided to make an analysis of the 51 California public junior college faculty handbooks which are included in the Laboratory in Junior College Administration. It is the purpose of this article to report the major findings of that survey.²

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¹ John Lombardi, "Bulletins of Information," *Junior College Journal*, 24 (November, 1953), 132-5.

² For a more complete report see Frederick C. Kintzer, *Faculty Handbooks in California Public Junior Colleges* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 1) Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1961. UCLA Student Store. One dollar.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Authors seem to agree that the basic objective of a handbook for instructors is to present institutional policies, regulations and procedures to the teaching staff. One writer points out that a manual could be used as a guide in the orientation of new teachers, substitute teachers and new administrators.³ Another suggests that the manual may serve as a 'uniform reference on school procedures to secure more uniform results in clerical and administrative duties.'⁴

In his article on junior college "Bulletins of Information," Lombardi presents the following question as a criterion for evaluating the worth of handbook material: "Of what value is this item to the instructor?" He indicates that this publication is strictly informational, "... a summary of policies and procedures governing relations among instructors, between instructors and school boards, between instructors and students."⁵

Turner supports the view that unessential information should be avoided in an instructor's manual and proposes that schedules of classes, annual teaching assignments, for example, be presented in bulletins rather than in handbooks.⁶ To others, however, including a number of California junior college handbook com-

mittees, such suggestions are apparently unacceptable, for ephemeral types of materials are frequently included in faculty manuals.

Reference is frequently made in the literature to a logical organization of materials. In most manuals, a form of divisions, chapters, articles, sub-articles and sections is used. It is generally agreed that sample forms plus information concerning their use are of value, particularly to the new instructor. Since many items included in even the most carefully prepared handbook are subject to change, mimeographed publications in looseleaf form are suggested.

Writers on the subject recognize that the faculty handbook should be a cooperative venture. Since it is for the entire instructional staff, it should represent the views and experiences of the faculty. However, as Jones suggests, the final preparation and later revision of the publication should be entrusted to one person.⁷

Again and again, authors point out that the faculty manual is not a standardized publication, but a highly individualistic document for a particular institution. The following review of materials in 51 manuals tends to support this view but, at the same time, identifies similarities among the publications.

CONTENTS EMPHASES IN FACULTY HANDBOOKS

The first step in the survey of 51 California public junior college faculty handbooks was to list all topics found in one or more of the publications. The 116 items were then classified under 11 divisions: (1) Introduction or Preface, (2) Background—Philosophy—Organization,

³ Robert E. Jones, "The Teacher's Handbook," National Association of Secondary School Principals, *The Bulletin*, 43 (September, 1959), p. 196.

⁴ Delbert L. Baker, "The Formation of a Teacher's Handbook," National Association of Secondary School Principals, *The Bulletin*, 42 (September, 1958), p. 124.

⁵ Lombardi, *op. cit.*, p. 134.

⁶ Lawrence E. Turner, "How to Develop a Handbook," *American School Board Journal*, 126 (April, 1953), p. 24.

⁷ Jones, *op. cit.*, p. 197.

(3) Responsibilities of Board and Administrative Officers, (4) Responsibilities of Staff other than Administrators, (5) Extra-class Duties of Faculty, (6) Student Personnel Services, (7) Procedural Information for Faculty, (8) Professional Information for Faculty, (9) General Regulations of the College, (10) Student Body Information and (11) Miscellaneous Material.

A tabulation was then made of the frequency with which each of the 116 items was found in the 51 manuals.⁸ On the basis of this count, the percentages of handbooks including each topic were computed and items were arranged in rank order.

In a sense, Table I might be designated "content of a typical handbook," for it includes all items found in half or more of the manuals. The diversity of content in the publications analyzed is suggested by the fact that only 38 (one-third of the 116 total) items are found in as many as half of the manuals and only ten (nine per cent of the total) in three-fourths or more of the handbooks.

It will be noted that the 38 items most often found in handbooks are not widely distributed among the 11 divisions under which topics were classified. Rather, they are concentrated in three groups which account for more than two-thirds of the 38 topics: "Procedural Information for Faculty," "Professional Information for Faculty," and General Regulations of the College." The frequent inclusion of material on procedural and professional information and on college regulations is consistent both with the recommendations in the literature on faculty hand-

books and with statements regarding the purposes of these publications written by presidents of junior colleges in the introductions or prefaces to such publications.

CONTENTS OF FACULTY HANDBOOKS TOPICALLY CONSIDERED

In the paragraphs which follow, the content of faculty handbooks will be briefly summarized.

1. Introduction or Preface. Thirty-five of the 51 handbooks open with an introduction or preface which is usually written by the college president. Ranging in length from 35 to 350 words, introductions include such information as purposes of the handbook; descriptions of its organization; acknowledgements to the committee responsible for the publication; encouragements to the faculty to familiarize themselves with policies and procedures included; and requests for suggestions for improving the manual.

Thus, the introduction establishes the tone for the publication by setting forth purposes and describing contents and by inviting the faculty to use the material while at the same time encouraging them to participate in further improving the manual. Many prefaces emphasize the value of policy and procedural information for new instructors.

2. Background—Philosophy—Organization. Thirty-six of the 51 handbooks contain information regarding "Background—Philosophy—Organization." Actually, nine handbooks present background descriptions; 21, statements of philosophy; 18, objectives—purposes; and 36, organization charts or outlines.

a. Background. Several handbooks offer descriptions of the community served

⁸ For a frequency list of the 116 items, see: Kintzer, *op. cit.*, pp. 20-23.

TABLE I

Items Included in Half or More of
Fifty-One California Junior College Handbooks
Arranged in Rank Order on Basis of Frequency of Occurrence

| Item | Handbooks in Which Found | | |
|--|--------------------------|---------|------|
| | Number | Percent | Rank |
| Admission and Attendance | 45 | 88 | 1½ |
| Table of Contents | 45 | 88 | 1½ |
| Grading System | 42 | 82 | 3 |
| Accidents (faculty and students) | 41 | 80 | 4½ |
| Audio-Visual Services | 41 | 80 | 4½ |
| Field Trips | 40 | 78 | 7 |
| Library Regulations | 40 | 78 | 7 |
| Other Absences (hardship, military, etc.) | 40 | 78 | 7 |
| Emergencies | 39 | 76 | 9½ |
| Examinations | 39 | 76 | 9½ |
| Textbooks (selection, ordering, receiving, changing, etc.) | 37 | 74 | 11 |
| Organization (charts and/or outlines) | 36 | 70 | 12 |
| Committee Assignments | 35 | 68 | 14½ |
| Guidance and Counseling | 35 | 68 | 14½ |
| Introduction to Handbook | 35 | 68 | 14½ |
| Requisitioning Process | 35 | 68 | 14½ |
| Faculty Organizations and other Professional Associations | 34 | 66 | 17½ |
| Office Assignments and/or Hours | 34 | 66 | 17½ |
| Deans' Responsibilities | 33 | 64 | 20 |
| Meetings (faculty, divisions, committee, etc.) | 33 | 64 | 20 |
| Probation—Expulsion—Retention (maximum loads, working while on probation, etc.) | 33 | 64 | 20 |
| Bulletin, Bulletin Boards and other Publications | 32 | 62 | 22 |
| Calendar (semester and/or annual) | 31 | 60 | 24½ |
| Keys (distribution and control) | 31 | 60 | 24½ |
| Sick Leave | 31 | 60 | 24½ |
| Telephone (faculty and student use, long distance calls, etc.) | 31 | 60 | 24½ |
| Parking (administration, faculty, students, visitors) | 30 | 58 | 27 |
| Insurance (faculty and/or students) | 29 | 56 | 28 |
| Class Records and Permanent Records | 28 | 54 | 30 |
| Mail (collection, distribution, assignment of boxes, etc.) | 28 | 54 | 30 |
| Presidents' Responsibilities | 28 | 54 | 30 |
| Registrar, Business Manager, Librarian, et al. (responsibilities of) | 27 | 53 | 32 |
| Equipment and Facilities (availability and care) | 26 | 51 | 34 |
| Salary Information and/or Schedules | 26 | 51 | 34 |
| Supervision of Student Organizations | 26 | 51 | 34 |
| Duplicating and/or Printing Services | 25 | 50 | 37 |
| Equipment and Facilities (use) | 25 | 50 | 37 |
| Teaching Load Policies | 25 | 50 | 37 |

by a college. One contains a chronological history of the college and another gives information regarding population, income, employment, building and educational status of the area.

b. Philosophy. Twenty-one manuals include statements of college philosophy. Although most statements are general in nature, a few present only philosophies of instruction.

c. Objectives—Purposes. Eighteen of the 51 faculty handbooks provide information concerning objectives and purposes. Ranging from a brief listing to a comparatively complete discussion, these statements most frequently refer to occupational education, general education, education for transfer, community service and guidance.

In addition, a number of manuals include more specific statements on the purposes of general education usually drawn from the report of the California Study of General Education in the Junior College. These statements contain references to such objectives as moral and spiritual values; responsibilities and privileges of democratic citizenship; basic mechanical and mathematical skills as well as the skills of writing, speaking, reading and listening; good mental and physical health; satisfactory home and family life and the development of critical thinking.⁹

3. Responsibilities of Board and Administrative Officers. Responsibilities of deans are described more frequently (in 33 handbooks) than those of any other administrative officers. Closely grouped in frequency of occurrence are the responsibilities of the president and those of the

registrar, business manager, librarian, et al. (in 28 and 27 manuals, respectively.) Duties of division or department heads, directors, coordinators and assistant deans are mentioned less frequently (in 22, 21, 19 and 15 manuals, respectively). Listed least often are the responsibilities of vice-presidents and boards (in nine and seven handbooks, respectively).

4. Responsibilities of Staff other than Administrative. It is interesting to note that duties of instructors, found in 24 manuals, occur less frequently—in a handbook for instructors—than those of presidents or deans (in 28 and 33 publications, respectively). Representative of frequently listed faculty responsibilities are: to familiarize oneself with the philosophy of junior colleges and the objectives and purposes of this college; to meet all classes regularly and promptly; to conduct class sessions according to accepted courses of study and to use approved textbooks; to cooperate with administrators and other instructors by attending all faculty meetings and participating in the work of faculty committees; to take an active part in community life; and to represent the college in community affairs when called on to do so.

5. Extra-class Duties of Faculty. The importance of extra-class duties of faculty members is suggested by the fact that each of the three items dealing with such responsibilities is included in more than half of the handbooks: "Committee Assignments," "Faculty Organizations and other Professional Association," and "Supervision of Student Organizations."

Many of the 34 manuals which present material concerning faculty organizations and professional associations refer to the local chapter of the California Teachers'

⁹ B. Lamar Johnson, *General Education in Action* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1952), p. 2.

Association. Work of the State Association is frequently described and instructors are encouraged to become members.

6. Student Personnel Services. Since guidance is widely accepted as one of the purposes of the junior college, it is not surprising that more than two-thirds of the manuals offer information about this basic service. At the same time, it must be kept in mind that since information concerning guidance is frequently found in the college catalog and student handbook as well as in special bulletins, committees may feel that material regarding student personnel services need not be given extensive treatment in a faculty handbook.

7. Procedural Information for Faculty. Practically all manuals emphasize procedural information for the staff. Most frequent mention is made of "Admissions and Attendance," "Class Records and Permanent Records," "Examinations," "Grading System," "Office Assignments and/or Hours," and "Requisitioning Process."

A number of colleges include reports of institutional studies and discussions of such varied topics as grading, characteristics of good instruction, how to improve lectures and causes of unsatisfactory student performance.

8. Professional Information for Faculty. Five items in this section are found in half or more of the manuals analyzed: "Insurance (faculty and/or students)," "Teaching Load Policies," "Salary Information and/or Schedules," "Sick Leave" and "Other Absences (hardship, military, etc.)." Thirty-one manuals contain sick leave provisions, while 40 provide information on other types of absences, including military and hardship leaves (serious illness or death to a member of the im-

mediate family). Eighteen handbooks contain salary schedules, while eight others have salary information other than schedules. Discussion of insurance for faculty and/or students is included in 29 of the publications.

Often provided are statements of procedures to be followed by instructors in depositing and withdrawing money from student body accounts, or when making vouchers for money or requisitions for supplies or equipment from general funds.

9. Regulations of the College. As has been noted earlier, "General Regulations of the College" received more attention than any other section of the handbooks. Of the 116 items identified in the study, 35 (31 per cent of the total) were of a general regulatory nature. In addition, 16 of the 38 topics found in 50 per cent or more of the manuals are contained in this division.

Among topics on which regulations are frequently reported are these: accidents (faculty and students); audio-visual services; bulletins, bulletin boards and other publications; emergencies; field trips; keys (distribution and control); library regulations; and textbooks (selection, ordering, receiving, changing, etc.).

Emphases on general regulations vary, of course, from institution to institution according to specific problems or needs of the college service area. For example, those colleges located in highly industrialized communities frequently place in their publications detailed information concerning defense alerts and emergency procedures to be followed in case of attack.

10. Student Body Information. Information concerning student body activities is given little attention in faculty hand-

books. No item in this division is found in half or more of the manuals. Since practically all junior colleges have student as well as faculty handbooks, it is quite natural that many avoid the duplication of information on student affairs in both publications.

11. Miscellaneous Material. Only two items classified as "miscellaneous" are mentioned in as many as half of the handbooks: "Calendar (semester and/or annual)" and "Table of Contents."

Writers generally agree that sample forms and information explaining their use are valuable, particularly for new faculty. Nineteen of the manuals contain such forms as attendance cards, grade sheets, personnel records, and requisitioning and purchasing blanks. In some handbooks this type of material is scattered in various sections, while in others, forms and explanations of forms are placed in appendices.

Fourteen of the 51 publications describe public relations programs; four contain codes of ethics for faculty members; and 11 discuss curriculum development.

Information for extended day and/or non-certified-classified personnel is provided in special sections in a few manuals, most frequently at the conclusion.

FORMAT

Many faculty handbooks have individualistic covers, some, no doubt, designed by art departments. Only one, however, places a photograph on the cover, and one includes pictures in the publication.

All but two manuals are mimeographed or duplicated. Twenty-nine are held together by metal clasps, nine each by plastic clasps and staples, and four by ring

binders. Colored paper is commonly used to emphasize certain items, such as salary schedule or to separate sections—day from extended day, for example.

Forty-five of the 51 handbooks have tables of contents. Fifteen also have indices (highly recommended by writers in the field), one, an index only. Five have neither tables of contents nor indices.

The length of the publications varies from 23 to 115 pages.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Faculty handbooks published by California public junior colleges are, indeed, individualistic documents. Although many common topics are discussed, treatment of these varies with the "personalities" of colleges and of the communities they serve. Material pertaining to procedural, professional and general regulatory matters is most frequently included, but information dealing with staff responsibilities and the student body is less often mentioned.

Although faculty manuals from other colleges may provide suggestions for committees responsible for the preparation of such handbooks, final decisions regarding content and format must be made by each particular college with constant reference to the basic purposes of its publication. Paraphrasing Lombardi's suggestion quoted earlier, decisions regarding content should be reached by answering this question: Of what value is this material to the group or groups for which the handbook is designed?

The faculty handbook is, in general, accepted as a worthwhile publication by administrators and writers in the field. It is, however, of little value unless used by the faculty. In all too many instances, it is

feared, the handbook—an expensive and complex document to produce—gathers dust on office bookshelves. Administrators and committee members responsible for the development of this publication should be alert to identify factors which impede the usefulness of the faculty manual and to initiate corrective measures.

The administrator may help to assure effective utilization of the faculty handbook by: (1) providing every instructor with an up-to-date copy; (2) making frequent references to the manual in faculty

and committee meetings; (3) using the handbook as a basic tool in orientation of new instructors; and (4) encouraging faculty members to evaluate the publication and to contribute to the next edition.

The most voluminous handbook is not necessarily the most effective, neither is the smallest the least successful. The effectiveness of a faculty handbook can only be judged in terms of its value to the institution for which it is designed and the extent to which it is actually utilized by the faculty.

An Addition for the Cumulative Records

ANDREW JOHNSON

IN THE American Library Association *Bulletin* of April, 1957, Philip H. Falk proposed certain changes in school library services to meet specific problems in educational programs. Puzzling over the counseling functions of librarians, the author observed:

One may question how a librarian can know intimately the reading abilities and interests of 300 to 500 children. Probably she can't. She can, however, with the aid of a simple record system acquire some knowledge about every child, much information about many, and a great deal about a few. Without too much difficulty she can know very well the few brilliant avid readers as well as those on the opposite side of the scale—the reading problems. The librarian has one great advantage over all other teachers: she works with the same children over a period of years.¹

The following article is primarily concerned with what Mr. Falk refers to as a "simple record system."

Today the classroom teacher in public school as well as in college has many obligations of which a great portion are concerned with evaluating students. These tasks of evaluation range from formal testing by national standards and local objectives to gaining such a personal knowledge of the pupil that the counseling

teacher is qualified to measure both the standing and progress of the student throughout the school year. Such evaluations must be directed by individual factors which take into account the total background of the individual student. To the average high school classroom teacher, with five classes of over 30 pupils each, the initial activities of a new semester in any regular teaching program are a considerable task. Yet, as an aid to the teacher in obtaining the background of the individual and as a tool in planning a course program addressed to the interest and ability limits of the student, the cumulative record should be most useful.

The cumulative record, which is often termed a personal record, has been appraised as "almost essential if a program of pupil guidance is to be effective."² For the teacher who is gathering information about his students and trying to know his pupils' abilities as well as their inabilities, the measurement of a pupil's record of progress against his past achievement is much more than "almost essential." It is vital. This is true particularly if the teacher's evaluation is to be of any value to the teacher, the school system, or above all, the pupil.

In determining the degree of utility to be obtained from the cumulative record, however, the contents of the record (or records) must be of primary concern.

¹ Philip H. Falk, "Changes in School Library Service to Meet Changes in School Programs," *American Library Association Bulletin*, 51:265, April, 1957.

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² Harry A. Greene, A. M. Jorgensen, and J. R. Gerberich, *Measurement and Evaluation in the Secondary School* (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1953), 273.

Some record systems, limited by cost, clerical training, or unrecognized importance of this vital system will only show the teacher such facts of student background as partial information on parents and semester grades. Other record systems offer a much wider sample of student information and thus give a better view of the "whole student." Some years ago college texts listed as "sufficient" information the following entries for cumulative records:

... information about family background and environment, personal history, health, personality, intelligence, special abilities, school progress, scholarship, achievement test performances, extracurricular activities, employment, educational plans, and vocational ambitions.

[To this might be added] ... certain types of other data, such as anecdotal records and case studies ... ³

From such a general listing of facts the teacher would certainly be aided in his evaluation of the student, but the reflective administrator will recognize that there are other members of the school staff who have a contribution to make to the cumulative record and who should profitably use such records.

One such person is the school librarian or any such staff member who directs reading programs within the school. With the exception of "special abilities," "extracurricular activities," or in some cases "intelligence," there is no direct or indirect reference in the average cumulative record concerning the reading record of a student. Even though such reading records can reveal much about the interest, ability, even the ambitions of the student, the only entry in this area, as taken from the above example, would be an entry on

reading proficiency. This record on proficiency, in the interest of saving space on record forms, will normally be given as a grade level of reading or as a simple numerical grade on a standardized reading test. In any case, the average cumulative record with regard to reading records of students is either blank or so highly statistical in its objectivity that it is of little use in understanding the student or in gaining a qualified position for evaluating the "eager reader." Thus the significance of cumulative records as a general aid to the classroom teacher, the guidance counselor, and the local director of the reading program can be established. The consequence of the omissions in this record is of striking importance.

If the reading record of a student is of no importance, if the characters a student meets in his reading have no influence, if the reading patterns of a student show nothing about the interest, abilities or attitudes of the student, then, of course, the reading record has no place in the personal record of the student. If such a reading record would not aid the teacher in understanding his students, the librarian in advising her patrons, or the school's counselor in finding the interests of the student (or finding interests for the student without interests), then, of course, the reading record could have no function in the cumulative record. Yet reading does have its important function in the development of the adolescent, and thus the reading record must have its place in the cumulative record. About adolescents and libraries Luella Cole has written, "The modern adolescent from practically all groups does considerable reading, even if his selections are not always appropriate. . . . As far as the public library is

³ *Ibid.*

concerned, an adolescent's selections, whatever they are, cannot do him much damage because the available books are too carefully chosen . . ."⁴ How much more, then, would the selection be directed to constructive reading in highly selective school libraries?

Such a question answers itself, but has the question on the relevance of reading records to the cumulative record been answered? John E. Horrock in his study of adolescence has cited figures on the percentages of students using available libraries. According to the profession of the student's father, these percentages ranged from 70-18.2. Thus up to 70 per cent of the boys who had fathers in technical professions would use libraries and only 18 per cent of the boys with rural backgrounds used their library facilities.⁵ Within these percentages, again according to Horrock, the tastes as expressed in book selection have a pronounced emphasis in adventure, with the interests of girls in later years turning to the more sentimental or romantic works and the reading of boys turning to biography.⁶ From these still to be expanded studies of student usage of libraries as well as from Horrock's reasons for book selections (assignments from teachers, seeking answers to their own problems, and to gain information), a reasonable suggestion can be made of the practical counseling utility of reading records.

From patterns established by student selections according to age, there is the

first hint as to a specific use for reading records. Evaluation of students in terms of their adjustment to the general reading patterns of their age level will certainly be useful to the teacher or the counselor. If nothing else, this standard of normal reading preference would give justification for the position of reading records in the student's cumulative record.

Again Horrock's citations to studies on types of non-fiction and their popularity rating suggest the basis for the establishment of improved scaled listings which should enable librarians as well as teachers to evaluate student reading records against such general standards as reading norms for the student's age, grade, and social background.⁷ Certainly any comprehensive cumulative record should include the record of each student's reading selection as this selection does, or does not, show the advancing maturity of choice. Thus when the general reading program of the student seems to help adolescents achieve personal and social adjustment, it should be of interest to the educator. Since the important influence of reading is established fact in the development of the student and the potential of such a reading record in the guidance and evaluation of a part of the student's activity is demonstratable, it seems conclusive that the reading record has its effective place in the cumulative record or should have such a position in schools where it is now absent.

In listing the factors for consideration in a reading guidance program, one may ask if the teacher knows the students' past reading experience. Here, actually, is a question of concern to all classroom teachers and librarians when considering the

⁴ Luella Cole, *Psychology of Adolescence* (New York: Rinehart and Co., 1952), 408.

⁵ John E. Horrock, *The Psychology of Adolescence* (Dallas: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951), 441-444.

⁶ *Ibid.*, 433.

⁷ *Ibid.*, 435.

level of the course of study to be used in the classroom or in aiding student selections in "free time reading."

Any reading record would be of little use to any teacher in a school or college where there is no library or where the student body is so small that the librarian is able to know every student personally and the reading taste and record of every student. Such an intimate school environment would question either the efficiency or the mental powers of the librarian. Total dependency upon the librarian to know the reading record of students, however, would still not solve the problem of counseling students who do not take advantage of their library facilities.

The student who is an "eager reader" naturally gravitates to the library, but the non-reader stays away. As all school librarians realize, some readers have always received reading guidance from librarians. The current problem, however, is to provide library guidance for all readers. To the librarian the student's reading record as contained in a cumulative record could well serve as: (1) a list of students to introduce to the library's facilities or (2) a correction for the unbalanced reading programs of the library's student patrons.

More service, however, is to be derived from the library and the librarian's contribution to the reading record in the field of student guidance. As W. A. Fitzgerald has observed librarians meet students as individuals who are interested in any and all fields.⁸ To this should be added the observation of Sister M. Richard Anthony: "The librarian's relations with the boys and girls are personal, individual, less for-

mal than those of the teacher."⁹ In this relationship, the librarian has an advantage over the classroom teacher; understanding her reading friends, she knows their capacities, interests, and hopes. This informal relationship of the librarian with the reading student shows the sympathetic librarian many problems of the individual. Thus the position of the librarian in the life of the students, particularly those who use the library, and the value of the school librarian and the library records (such as reading records) to the counseling service and to the teacher should be obvious.

The school guidance staff would seem to gain considerable assistance through the librarian. In the librarian the counselor will find a qualified colleague who is fortunate enough to know some of the innermost thoughts and interests of the student, to deal with students in more informal conditions which allow for more honest student expression in the absence of classroom supervision, and to study the student in his reading habits and selections which should be less guarded in a library than in a literature class. Should not all of such useful information be available to those faculty members responsible for and interested in the student?

How is such information to be recorded and made available to the teachers, counselors, and librarian with the least amount of change, trouble or expense? Since records are an integral part of counseling, they deserve to be called counseling tools. If the standards for evaluation of any records system are as C. J. Lindley has suggested: "avoidance of repetition, recording of factual information with accuracy, recording pertinent data, and the making

⁸ William A. Fitzgerald, "Librarians Are Guidance Counselors," *Catholic Library World*, 21:75-77, December, 1949.

⁹ Sister M. Richard Anthony, *Catholic Library World*, 19:246-248, May, 1948.

of interpretations,"¹⁰ there is a standard charging system used in many school libraries which can meet the first three requirements. With a small revision, the same system can meet the fourth requirement. Jennie M. Flexner in her work on circulation systems in libraries refers to this charging system as the "Newark System" and lists as its essential recording devices: (1) the standard book card, (2) the borrower's card, (3) the date slip, and (4) the book pocket.¹¹ In charging a book for circulation the borrower's name or number is recorded on the book card, and the book title or number is recorded on the card of the borrower. If the names and titles are used instead of numbers, a file of reader's cards (or borrower's cards) at the end of the school year, after an evaluation notation has been added, would satisfy the standards previously established for the proposed reading record in the cumulative record. Concerning charging systems Lucile F. Fargo in *The Library in the School* observes:

If it seems desirable to keep a record of the pupil's reading, this may be accomplished by adding a borrower's card to the charging equipment and entering on it the call number, author and title of the book together with the date drawn and, if there appears to be a reason for it as a part of the pupil's reading record, the date returned. The last may be useful to teachers wishing to check on the speed as well as the nature of the pupil's reading. This system is so simple even young pupils are easily taught to assist in charging books . . .¹²

¹⁰ Clyde J. Lindley, "Are Your Records Sagging?" *Occupations*, 30:252-254, January, 1952.

¹¹ Jennie M. Flexner, *Circulation Work in Public Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1927), 78-79.

¹² Lucile F. Fargo, *The Library in the School* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1947), 318-319.

In directions to teacher-librarians, Mary P. Douglas in *The Teacher-Librarian Handbook* advises, "If a record of pupil reading is kept, the name of the book borrowed and the date it is due is written on the pupil reading card . . ."¹³ Thus, there is standard library procedure which with slight modification can serve as the reading record in a cumulative record, and with very little effort on the part of such schools as have the "Newark System" of charging books for circulation in their libraries.

Another answer to the question of the form of the reading record has been found by some teachers in a Reading Record Card. Such a commercially prepared card is of folder size and provides small squares in which the student records the name of the book he is reading, some notations on its content, and the student's evaluation of the book. To each book record of the student the English teacher can add his evaluation. An example of this record system has been used in Emerson Junior High School in San Antonio, Texas. Here, however, the records of reading were used as a basis for grades in English classes and used only by the English Department of the individual school and not as part of an extended collection of student information.¹⁴

Limitations of such a program would be found in the absence of free expression by the student in book selection, as long as there is classroom supervision and teacher

¹³ Mary Peacock Douglas, *The Teacher-Librarian's Handbook* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1949), 44-45.

¹⁴ Wilda Harwood, information taken from personal interview with Mrs. Harwood, clerical staff member of the Library of The University of Texas, former teacher in Emerson Junior High School.

evaluation of the record, and in restriction of the records to departmental files, rather than passing such organized data on to the next secondary school of the student for use in evaluation of that student. In spite of such limitations, however, the Reading Record Card would have a definite place in the school system that, because of size, cost, or organization, cannot convert to, or take advantage of, the "Newark System" of charging.

Finally, if a school system should not be able to adopt a suitable charging system or afford the commercial reading cards, there would still be much value in a simple department reading file. The English department of the high school working with the librarian could prepare mimeographed sheets which provide for the student's name, date, title of book read, and a comment by the student on his opinion of the book. Such a file would have to be kept in the library in order that the student could add to his own record as soon as he returned a book. Again, the size of the school population is the major factor here, and without records of comparative studies the reading record as drawn from the charging system still seems to promise the most efficient system of the three suggested record forms.

From any of these record forms, however, the librarian can help identify the retarded reader or other readers with problems requiring a counselor's attention. A freely selected reading record would aid the high school in reading guidance, and, should a student's record show a continued selection of primary level or elementary level books long after the student enters upon intermediate level work, the alert counselor would be warned by the reading record. Then, too, the libra-

rian, when charging a book to a student under the "Newark System," can quickly make a spot check of the balanced (or unbalanced) selections that the student has made. Such checking would not prevent the student from continuing his reading in the field of his special interest, but it would provide the librarian with the opportunity of broadening the student's interest by the suggestion of equally good books in other fields or more advanced books in his special field of interest.

It is from these patterns of interest in the student's reading record that the counseling staff should obtain new aid. Alice R. Brooks, with recognition of Havinghurst's *Developmental Tasks of Adolescents*, has reported on a listing of books which with texts, biographies, and fiction present reading on the high school level which enables the student to find answers to his developmental or adjustment problem through reading. As an example, one task suggested by Havinghurst is that of building conscience values in "harmony with an adequate scientific world picture," and as a work of fiction related to this problem Brooks lists James Hilton's *Goodbye, Mr. Chips*.¹⁵ Without proper reading records the counselor sends a student to the librarian with a note requesting the librarian to introduce the student to an interesting book. From the books listed on a student's record would it be possible for the trained counselor, with a knowledge of the books or with the assistance of the librarian, to find problem patterns which the student is trying to solve in his book selection? The reading record would certainly show the extent to which

¹⁵ Alice R. Brooks, "Integrating Books and Reading with Adolescent Tasks," *School Review*, 28:211-219, April, 1950.

the student followed the counselor's advice on finding a new interest through reading.

Aside from these uses of the reading record, which could be described as guidance in reading, personality, and planning of (either the educational or vocational) nature, a reading record could also supply useful data to the college. In 1950, R. C. Cotner checked the reading background of the top three per cent of the Arts and Sciences School at the University of Texas.¹⁶ The report, in regard to books read, was totally dependent upon the memory of the reporting student, and this memory served only to list the authors of works which are normally found in the study course of American and English literature at the high school level. Since English literature, in many high schools, is the last reading course taken, the memory factor was evident in the preponderance of English authors in the report. From these limitations, Dr. Cotner could only suggest "that majors in English furnish a large percentage of the honor group [and this] must be related to their improvement in ability to read . . ."¹⁷ With the reading record in high school made available to the college not only would the guidance program be able to continue from a significant data core but the material would be more readily available for a proper study of the relation between

reading backgrounds and the "predictable" college record of students.

Finally, in reference to costs involved in this proposed addition to effective cumulative records, one must admit that no estimate of costs on reading records is available at the present. Commercial Reading Record Cards would cost approximately five cents per student. Flexner does not list any cost disadvantages involved in the "Newark System" of charging should this be taken as the means of adding the reading record to the cumulative record. As to the importance of guidance programs and their cost, Clifton Emery has reported that in a pilot survey in Boston in schools of 3,242 average population, the median cost-per-pupil for guidance was \$4.92, which in the annual school budget had a total average of only 1.64 per cent. On the basis of general costs for guidance, of which the reading record should be an inexpensive addition, Emery has concluded that no school spends a very high percentage of its total budget on guidance.¹⁸

Where the ultimate worth of any project must be related to its actual need, the real cost of the reading record in a cumulative record will greatly depend upon its usage by the teacher, counselor and ultimately the college. In adding a reading record to the cumulative record, one should estimate its cost and its value in terms of service rendered to the librarian, the teacher, the counselor, and, above all, the individual student.

¹⁶ R. C. Cotner, "A Study of Honor Students," unpublished report to the History Department of The University of Texas, 1950, 1-10.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁸ Clifton Emery, "Cost of Guidance," *Occupations*, 30:525, April, 1952.



Recent Writings... **JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS**

Society Today and Tomorrow: Readings In Social Science by Elgin F. Hunt and Jules Karlin (507 pp.; Macmillan).

Society Today and Tomorrow is an exceptionally well-balanced book of selected readings in social science. The volume is such an inclusive anthology that it would be an excellent supplement for a formal social science course; however, the professor can find better and more specialized readings books for the individual disciplines within the social science spectrum.

One of the greatest difficulties to overcome in the compilation of a readings volume is to prevent the ominous errors of omission. Editors Hunt and Karlin seem to have solved this vexing problem with an impressive list of authoritative scholars and authors. Sociology, psychology, economics, and political science all receive extensive treatment by such learned authorities as Robert M. MacIver, Suzanne K. Langer, Kingsley Davis, Julian Huxley, Ruth Benedict, Phillip M. Hansen, Summer H. Slichter, John Kenneth Galbraith, James Madison, and C. Northcote Parkinson.

From the introduction written by Joseph Wood Krutch, who is perhaps best known for his frequent rejection of mechanistic theories on the influence and de-

termination of human behavior to the concluding selection, the anthology as a volume is a contribution of distinction for social science. The work is made doubly desirable because it is available as a "paperback" and thus within the means of the student as a supplement.

R. Halliburton, Jr.
Cameron State College
Lawton, Oklahoma

Elementary Human Physiology by Terence A. Rogers (430 pp.; Wiley; \$6.50).

It has been said that the most important study of mankind is man. Here, in a small package, is a new presentation of one facet of this important study.

In the introduction, one finds an outline of anatomy and a summary of the basic facts about cells and the various kinds of tissues. Then follows, believe it or not, a one-chapter survey of chemistry.

Part two consists of an extensive consideration of body fluids, their composition, functions and chemistry. Special emphasis is placed on blood types and the effects of disease on the circulatory system.

Most of the text is taken up with the conventional studies of the several systems: circulatory, respiratory, eliminative

and digestive. In each case, the structure, operation and chemistry are described along with the machines, such as the electrocardiograph, used in study and diagnosis.

The nervous system is given extensive treatment, six chapters being devoted to the brain, nerves, muscular control and sense organs. The book closes with a description of the anatomy and mechanism of reproduction.

Throughout the text, one finds explanations of the control of various factors such as blood pressure, body temperature and respiration. An entire chapter is taken up with the role of hormones in this respect.

The chapter on chemistry contains several minor errors: pH 5 is ten times as acid as, not "ten times more acid than" pH 6. Not all catalysts remain "unchanged" during reactions; many go through a chemical cycle and are known as "carriers." Although it is true that atomic "weights" or masses are written without dimension, there is actually a unit of atomic mass, the reciprocal of Avogadro's Number in grams. To show how rapidly science advances, it might be noted that, since the book was written, the standard for atomic mass, so long set at $O = 16$, has been changed to $C^{12} = 12$. Also, the periodic table given on Page 42 is slightly out of date.

On the other hand, it may be said that the explanation of osmotic pressure is clearer than will be found in many chemistry texts, and the paragraph on electrolytic dissociation is free of the ambiguity and confusion one so often encounters in recent discourses on the subject.

The book is well illustrated and most of the chapters are documented. How-

ever, this reviewer feels that a glossary of the hundreds of italicized terms would have been a welcome aid to the student.

Rogers gives the impression that he is particularly interested in what causes disease, how the cause can be eliminated and how health can be maintained. This, of course, is the primary reason for studying physiology.

Owens Hand Browne
Saint Mary's Junior College
Raleigh, North Carolina

Regional Geography of the World, by
Jesse H. Wheeler, Jr., J. T. Kostbade
and Richard S. Thoman (674 pp.;
Holt, Rinehart and Winston; Revised
Edition, 1961; \$8.25).

It is difficult to find an introductory survey text in world geography that serves well both the general student interest and the interest of the geography major. The majority of beginning texts in college geography have in the main the potential major student as the target. Not so this text by Wheeler, et al. This revised edition, like the first edition of 1955, seeks to assist the college student in acquiring basic ideas and supporting facts about the contemporary world which a person with a college education might reasonably be expected to know. Its aim as stated by the authors is, in short, a general education in world geography. However, this text also serves well as a beginning work for the student who plans to continue further in the field of geography.

The organization of the book is regional rather than topical. Rather than using climatic regions the authors have divided the world into eight political-cultural regions: Europe, the Soviet Union, the Middle

East, the Orient, the Pacific World, Africa, Latin America and Anglo-America. There is a survey of the world importance, geographical characteristics and major problems of each region. Attention is also given to important individual countries and regional groups of countries within each of the eight major world regions.

The judicious use of editorial comment in brief blocks within each chapter introduces much of the basic terminology needed. In this manner the authors develop for the reader regional concepts in parallel with vocabulary development in the field. In my opinion this technique encourages a greater reader interest in the main textual material. These editorial comments in each chapter filled with basic terminology also make it easier for the student to select the big ideas. (Practical note to the teacher: review and test questions come readily from the same source).

As in any good geography text, there are many photographs, tables and maps. On the back covers of the book alone there are five world maps dealing with climate, vegetation, soils, precipitation and landforms. There are basic locational and resource maps for each of the world regions along with well-selected photographs of typical scenes. The photographs lend themselves to the "reading" of them rather than just "looking" at them.

This book is aimed at the one semester course at the freshman or sophomore level, at the general student and his development of world understanding. The aim is true.

Lorin Kenamer
The University of Texas
Austin, Texas

PAPERBACK BOOKS:

History

The Conquest of Peru by William H. Prescott (Mentor, 50¢).

This classic history of the conquest and subjugation of the Inca Empire by the Spaniards in the 16th Century is skillfully edited and abridged by the distinguished historian and archaeologist, Victor W. von Hagen. This is a must for all junior college students interested in the New World and the Age of Exploration.

The Loom of History by Herbert J. Muller (Mentor, 95¢).

Professor Muller is a fine scholar and a provocative writer. Here he treats the drama of history as a counterplay between East and West, Islam and Christianity. Asia Minor is his stage. All critics liked this book when issued in hard cover by Harper.

The Life of Abraham Lincoln by Stefan Lorant (Mentor, 75¢).

Because this biography contains over 180 excellent pictures in addition to the well-written, interesting text it will be read with enjoyment by both slow and bright students of American history.

The Federalist Papers by Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay (Mentor, 75¢).

Here is a classic, a milestone in American history and political theory. Three great founding fathers of this country defend the constitution. The introduction to this paperback edition was written by Clinton Rossiter.

English Literature

Junior college instructors of English literature will be interested to know that

the following titles are now available in the popular Signet Classics paperback editions.

Sense and Sensibility by Jane Austen (50¢); *Robinson Crusoe* by Daniel Defoe (50¢); *Joseph Andrews* by Henry Fielding (50¢); *A High Wind in Jamaica* by Richard Hughes (60¢); *The Sea and the Jungle* by H. M. Tomlinson (60¢); *Tono-Bungay* by H. G. Wells (50¢).

The Signet Classics line, part of New American Library, is noted for fine format, type and paper quality, and its covers are always attractive and in excellent taste.

Science

The Individual and the Universe by A. C. B. Lovell (Mentor, 50¢).

Timely as tomorrow's international headlines, this readable history of astronomy by Britain's greatest living astronomer, Professor Lovell, who invented the radio telescope, brings to the reader excellent background for understanding the physical world in terms of the space age. Non-technical in treatment, the book was compiled from Dr. Lovell's lectures over BBC.

The Universe and Dr. Einstein by Lincoln Barnett (Mentor, 50¢).

This little book has been widely acclaimed for its skillful job in bringing the complexities of atomic physics down to the popular level, the junior college level.

A Guide to Earth History by Richard Carrington (Mentor, 75¢).

"The evolution of our planet—its origin, structure, atmosphere, and life—from burning rock to civilized man," is the subtitle of this well-illustrated book by

Carrington, a British anthropologist, archaeologist, and zoologist.

Nature and Man's Fate by Garrett Hardin (Mentor, 75¢).

Professor Hardin, a distinguished American biologist, presents a readable introduction to the theory of evolution and the laws of heredity. The book was well received in hard-cover under the Holt imprint.

On the Nature of Man by John Langdon-Davies (Mentor, 50¢).

The author, a brilliant British thinker and writer asks such questions as: "What Is Man?", "What Is Science?", "What Is the Body?" He considers such subjects as evolution, creativeness, telepathy, health and disease, and the survival of man. Here is a general interest book in the field of popular science.

The Death of Adams: Evolution and Its Impact on Western Thought by John C. Greene (Mentor, 75¢).

Professor Greene, historian at Iowa State, traces the birth of the idea, evolution, from Newton to Darwin. The book has copious notes, illustrations, and an index.

Social Studies, Anthropology

New Lives for Old by Margaret Mead (Mentor, 75¢).

In this book Dr. Mead, the well-known anthropologist, examines what happens when a primitive society suddenly encounters the 20th Century. The hopeful, affirmative implications of this important study apply to all backward nations of the world.

World Literature

The Genius of the Irish Theater (Mentor, 75¢).

This book contains the complete texts of plays by Shaw, Sean O'Casey, Frank O'Connor, Yeats, Synge, and Lady Gregory. Also included are fine essays of dramatic criticism by such men as Max Beerbohm and James Joyce. It will be of interest to teachers of world literature and drama.

New Signet Classics of Russian Literature include: *The Cossacks and the Raid* by Leo Tolstoy (50¢); *The Queen of Spades and Other Tales* by Alexander Pushkin (60¢); *The Duel and Selected Stories* by Alexander Kuprin (50¢).

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American Literature

Junior college instructors of American literature will be interested to learn that the following assortment of well-known authors and titles is now available in fine quality paperback editions.

Henry Adams: *Mont-Saint-Michel and Chartres* (Mentor, 75¢); Louis Bromfield: *The Farm* (Signet, 75¢); Erskine Caldwell: *Georgia Boy* (Signet, 50¢); Benjamin Franklin: *Autobiography and Other Writings* (Sig-

net, 50¢); Nathaniel Hawthorne: *House of the Seven Gables* (Signet, 50¢); Elizabeth Madox Roberts: *The Great Meadow* (Signet, 50¢).

Edward Arlington Robinson: *Selected Early Poems and Letters*, edited by Charles T. Davis of Princeton University (Holt, Rinehart and Winston, \$1.45); *Thoreau, Man of Concord*, edited by Walter Harding (Holt, Rinehart and Winston, \$2.00).

Selections about Thoreau by illustrious contemporaries make up the major part of this book. Actual selections by Thoreau are slim but fine.

Henry Lash
Los Angeles Trade-
Technical College
Los Angeles, California

Some Comments on paperback books:

Until about three months ago, I agreed with Mr. Henry Lash's statement that "time and money should not be wasted in processing these perishable and inexpensive books" in his article in the March, 1961, *Journal*. Now I'm sure that in our small (17,000v.) library, it is no waste of time. In fact, it not only saves time to have paperbacks processed and available through the regular channels, it has increased circulation. By this I mean: a few months ago I weeded a large section of our library and was struck by the number of books whose cards had not a single name, or only two or three, although the book had been on the shelf for 20 years, or 30, or as long as 60 years. A few of these titles have been replaced by paperbacks and have in less than eight weeks been taken out more often than the hard covers were in many years.

I am on firm ground when I argue with another point; over ten years ago some paperbacks were purchased for outside readings in sociology and political science. These have been used by at least ten classes and only a few copies have lost their covers. True, they were not 50¢ paperbacks, but they were paperbacks.

Mrs. William J. Stigall, Jr., Librarian
Lincoln College
Lincoln, Illinois

* * *

The article on paperbacks by Henry Lash in the *Junior College Journal*, March, 1961, leaves much unsaid; particularly about "quality" paperbacks and their role in the community college library. I subscribe to most of Mr. Lash's beliefs because his concluding list of paperback publishers implies that he is writing about the marketplace type of paperback rather than the quality paperback.

At Northwestern Michigan College, the library sells and catalogs quality paperbacks. We sell them because space is not available for a walk-in bookstore, and catalog them when they represent titles not available in hardbound editions. In some instances, a quality paperback of good paper, readable print and generous margins is purchased and cataloged simply because it's priced low and can be bound at a later date.

A recent innovation in paperback binding, called "Perma-Bound," has prompted us to have all of our cataloged paperbacks under an inch thick perma-bound. This process encases the paperback cover in a plastic sandwich and reinforces the spine in a manner that allows the binder to guarantee fifty circulations or two years of use, whichever comes first. This binding

costs one dollar. Adding this to the original cost of most paperbacks still totals substantially less than four dollars, which was our average book cost last year. Furthermore, we feel that we will get much more than two years of use out of these books. We still have some paperbacks in use that were cataloged in 1953.

Our optimism about the perma-bound paperback will remain open to criticism until an extended period of use proves us to be right or wrong. In the meantime, we shall continue to catalog and perma-bind quality paperbacks since this practice will enable us to purchase more books with available funds. That the perma-bound paperback will wear out sooner than the hard-bound book is debatable. Even if it does, we will have enjoyed more titles than would have been possible had we put all our eggs in one basket with hardbounds.

Our motivation, of course, stems from the ACRL Standards for Junior College Libraries, which prescribe that the minimum number of books for a two-year college library of 1,000 students is 20,000 volumes. Last year, the national median book collection of two-year colleges was 10,000 volumes. Consequently, most of us face the task of doubling our book collections to meet minimum standards. If the use of quality paperbacks in the library will expedite this task, we are for it.

Bernard Rink, Librarian
Northwestern Michigan College
Traverse City, Michigan

Letters to My Teacher by Dagobert D. Runes (105 pp.; Philosophical Library; \$2.75).

Letters to My Teacher is a book of sad-

ness. Almost a full lifetime has passed since the author left his teacher's classroom in a little Austrian university town. To him, time has traveled at quickstep, with infinite misery stumbling closely behind. A man who saw the Empire, once in flower, crumble and fall, now, in melancholy analogy describes the fate of so many once enlightened pedagogical structures. Have the lessons of his youth stood up under the test of this ugly age? The tale, after all is told, is a touching document of a philosopher attributing many of the tragic failings of today to the inadequacy of yesterday's learning.

Although on the surface of 18 letters the theme is disillusionment, the foundation of his letters is constructed of everlasting ethical principles. What good, he asks, are bits of academic information if the pupil receives a minimum of humanitarian precepts? Following the general concepts of Spinoza, the writer chooses the word "God" to signify the highest and best in man's relationship to man. For very human reasons packed with philosophical and historical insight he agonizes over what may be the apparent ultimate destiny of man.

The author moves swiftly from one academic discipline to another, analysing and explaining the world's educational system within the blueprint of the twentieth century. He makes no attempt to ascend from the state of mental depression so characteristic of writers who have been exposed to the fears, concentration camps, and putrid propaganda of our age. He writes every line as if he were standing at the graveside of those 40 million humans exterminated in this century, and he ends every line with a feeling that the doom has not yet ceased.

In retrospect he asks—"How is youth to know what will be right for tomorrow, if the wrong remains hidden in yesterday?" Throughout several large segments of his book the professor pleads for an interpretation of history as the knowledge of the people's events, and not on account of their usurpers' and black knights; and he would relegate the study of military and kingly tyrants, bastard or legitimate, to the criminal records for those to examine who have reason or desire to search in the black books of the underworld.

It is indispensable to clarify to the young the meaning of life's true virtues; they must be taught to view all phases of literature, religion, philosophy, art, history, and politics from the point of view of the divine principle of man's inner goodness. He concludes that without these humanistic concepts, we will only raise robots of science on either side of the iron curtain. In other words, "today science is as much a threat as it is a blessing. Let the humanities tip the scale."

As the theme of despair becomes increasingly evident, the author asserts that perhaps Pestalozzi was right (as were the ancient Talmudists) in holding that the most fundamental principle of education was the wisdom of love.

Continuing, the author says that nothing is easier to teach than hate; that is perhaps the reason why the tyrant invariably finds someone or something for his people to hate. With this hatred he unites them; with this hatred he holds them—hate comes easy to man.

In conclusion he reasserts that the wisdom of love must be learned from one end of this planet to the other if we are to become better than we are. He speaks of great textbooks: the Psalms of King David

and the Proverbs of his son; the Blessings of Isaiah and Jeshu, of Ben Sirach and Moses; the Lao Te Ching of Loatse and the messages of the enlightened, of Gauthama Buddha, the Vedas and the Vedantas; the philosophy of Socrates and

that of Spinoza. Unless we bring God back in the schools, indeed all will be dark.

Luis M. Morton, Jr.
Odessa College
Odessa, Texas

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For the study of people:

Historically, we are recipients of *THE WESTERN HERITAGE* which—not coincidentally—is the name of *Stewart C. Easton's* newest history text. Those familiar with Easton's work will know his books to be intelligent, lucid and enjoyable reading; this one is no exception. It covers history *FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT* (its subtitle) in one volume. Just out, 928 pages, \$8.95. Another recent publication in this field is *THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD* which picks up the historic thread in 1500 and brings it onward to our own time. It has just been revised and brought up to date by the author, *Richard M. Brace* of Northwestern University. Ask for the *2ND EDITION—ENLARGED*. 958 pages, \$8.95.

Psychologically, so much new light has been shed on the human condition during the past five years that a look at some new texts is nearly a necessity. One just published is *PATTERN AND GROWTH IN PERSONALITY* by the well-known Harvard University professor, *Gordon W. Allport*. It is written particularly for "students who have little or no background in psychology," with great style and clarity. 517 pages, \$7.50. *De los D. Wickens* and *Donald R. Meyer* (both of The Ohio State University) have rewritten every chapter in their widely-used basic psychology text, to keep students up to date on the latest advances. It will be worthwhile to take a look at *PSYCHOLOGY, REVISED EDITION*. 784 pages, \$7.75.

And Politically, to keep well-informed, may we suggest this year's *American Government Annual* (1961-62) which discusses five current and important topics. *Ivan Hinderaker* (University of California, Los Angeles) edited this 128 page paperback, which sells for \$1.75.



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